

Identification of RR Lyrae Variables in SDSS from Single-Epoch Photometric and Spectroscopic Observations

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ABSTRACT

We describe a new RR Lyrae identification technique based on out-of-phase single-epoch photometric and spectroscopic observations contained in SDSS Data Release 6 (DR-6). This technique detects variability by exploiting the large disparity between the $g - r$ color and the strength of the hydrogen Balmer lines when the two observations are made at random phases. Comparison with a large sample of known variables in the SDSS equatorial stripe (Stripe 82) shows that the discovery efficiency for our technique is $\sim 85\%$. Analysis of stars with multiple spectroscopic observations suggests a similar efficiency throughout the entire DR-6 sample. We also develop a technique to estimate the average g apparent magnitude (over the pulsation cycle) for individual RR Lyrae stars, using the $\langle g - r \rangle$ for the entire sample and measured colors for each star. The resulting distances are found to have precisions of $\sim \pm 14\%$. Finally, we explore the properties of our DR-6 sample of $N = 1087$ variables, and recover portions of the Sagittarius Northern and Southern Stream. Analysis of the distance and velocity for the Southern Stream are consistent with previously published data for blue horizontal-branch stars. In a sample near the North Galactic Polar Cap, we find evidence for the descending leading Northern arm, and a possible detection of the trailing arm.

Subject headings: stars: RR Lyrae — Galaxy: halo — Galaxy: structure

1. Introduction

RR Lyrae variable stars are extremely useful probes of the Galactic halo. Their unique light curves allow for confident identification, while their intrinsic high luminosities allows them to be observed to the outer limits of the Milky Way. Although RR Lyrae variables have been used in the past to explore the local Galactic halo (e.g., Layden 1994), studies of the outer halo with similarly large samples have only just begun. These new explorations have been made possible by the enormous amounts of photometric data from surveys such as QUEST (Vivas & Zinn 2006) and the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS; York et al. 2000).

The Sloan Digital Sky Survey uses a CCD camera (Gunn et al. 1998) on a dedicated 2.5m telescope (Gunn et al. 2006) at Apache Point Observatory, New Mexico, to obtain images in five broad optical bands (*ugriz*; Fukugita et al. 1996) over approximately 10,000 deg² of the high Galactic latitude sky. The survey data-processing software measures the properties of each detected object in the imaging data in all five bands, and determines and applies both astrometric and photometric calibrations (Lupton et al. 2001; Pier et al. 2003; Ivezić et al. 2004). Photometric calibration is provided by simultaneous observations with a 20-inch telescope at the same site (Hogg et al. 2001; Smith et al. 2002; Stoughton et al. 2002; Tucker et al. 2006).

The SDSS and the Sloan Extension for Galactic Understanding and Exploration (SEGUE) have now imaged over 9,500 square degrees of the sky in five bandpasses, and cataloged a total of over 280 million unique objects, roughly one-third of which are classified as stars. The vast majority of the photometry is based on single-epoch observations. Despite this limitation, Ivezić et al. (2005) has shown that, using color constraints from the high-precision SDSS photometry, an area in color space can be constructed which allows identification of RR Lyraes with a completeness of 60% and at an efficiency, defined as percentage of true variables identified, of 28%. Even with this rather low efficiency, Ivezić

et al. was able to recover halo substructure features such as the Sagittarius Stream, and identify other new and potentially interesting overdensities in the halo.

Multi-epoch observations in SDSS, though covering a much smaller area of sky, have been shown to be quite efficient for identification of RR Lyrae variables. Ivezić et al. (2000) used two-epoch SDSS observations by utilizing the overlap area between SDSS strips. In an area of 97 square degrees they discovered 148 variables with an estimated discovery efficiency of 56%. Furthermore, Sesar et al. (2007) has used multiple observations of SDSS Stripe 82 ($-49^\circ < RA < 49^\circ$ and $-1.26^\circ < Dec < 1.26^\circ$) to identify over 634 RR Lyrae variables with $g < 20.5$. Using known variables discovered from the SDSS Light-Motion-Curve Catalog (LMCC) by Bramich et al. (2007), Sesar et al. were able to determine that the completeness of the multi-epoch Stripe 82 detections was $\sim 95\%$ with a discovery efficiency of $\sim 70\%$. The candidate variables in Sesar et al. were initially identified in the LMCC by comparing their positions to the list of RR Lyrae variables presented by DeLee et al. (2006). The lightcurves of the remaining candidates were then analyzed to separate the RR Lyrae variables from other types of variable and non-variable stars. These were confirmed and Bailey typed using a period-amplitude diagram similar to what was done in De Lee et al. These procedures are being followed to extend the light-curve coverage for these (and fainter) RR Lyraes, based on the fall 2006 (and eventually) fall 2007 SDSS Supernover Survey campaigns.

In addition to its imaging program, SDSS/SEGUE has now made (as of DR-6; Adelman-McCarthy et al. 2007), over 218,000 spectroscopic observations of stars with spectral-type earlier than M. Although clearly a smaller number than that of the photometry survey, these observations cover the same footprint as the photometry survey and constitute a second epoch of observation. It is well known that the hydrogen Balmer lines in RR Lyraes undergo significant changes in their breadths between minimum and maximum light

(Smith 1995). For RRab variables this change ranges from spectral type F6 to A8, while it is less pronounced in RRc type variables (F1 to A8). This difference in Balmer-line strength compared to $g - r$ color can be used to identify RR Lyrae variables for those cases where the photometry and spectroscopy observations are taken out of phase, which will often be the case unless special steps are taken to coordinate the phases of the observations.

In this paper we describe a technique for identifying RR Lyrae variables from the combination of spectroscopic Balmer-line strengths and $g - r$ colors, based on data taken at random phases. The basic technique is discussed in §2. In §3 we use the RR Lyrae identifications from the LMCC, and additional photometric observations obtained from McDonald Observatory, to quantify our completeness and discovery efficiency. We characterize the entire RR Lyrae sample in §4. Section 5 explores our ability to recover known halo substructure based on this sample. A brief summary and conclusions are provided in §6.

2. The Technique

This technique uses two-epoch observations, one from the single-epoch photometry and the second from follow-up spectroscopy. Note that many of the spectroscopic observations were performed on stars that occupy the color region associated field horizontal-branch stars (e.g., Sirko et al. 2004). The goal is to identify variable stars that have these two observations taken out of phase with one another (that is, the suspected variable is observed at different points in its pulsation cycle). When this occurs, the measured $g - r$ color will be inconsistent with that that expected from the width of the Balmer lines determined from the spectroscopy. Obviously, this technique is not able to recover variables for which the two epochs are taken (by chance) in phase with one another.

As is clearly shown in Figure 1.10 of Smith (1995), the hydrogen Balmer lines in RR Lyrae variables undergo an enormous change in strength between minimum and maximum light. For the RRAb variables the spectral type can change from F6 at minimum light to A8 at maximum. The variation for RRC variables is more modest, from F1 to A8. The color of the star, as shown for Johnson $B - V$ colors in Figure 1.9 of Smith, changes by several tenths of a magnitude during the full phase of variation.

In order to explore the relationship between the Balmer-line width and SDSS $g - r$ color, we have first constructed a grid of synthetic colors and Balmer-line widths. The colors were determined using Kurucz Atlas9 (Kurucz 1993) flux models convolved with the g and r bandpasses from the SDSS (Strauss & Gunn 2007). Synthetic spectra were computed using the Atlas9 model atmospheres and the spectral synthesis routine SPECTRUM by Gray (Gray & Corbally 1994). The normalized spectra were computed at a very high dispersion (0.02 Å/pixel) and smoothed to the resolution of the SDSS spectra ($R = 2000$). The Balmer lines $H\delta$, $H\gamma$, and $H\beta$ were then fit with a Voigt profiles, and both the equivalent width (EW) and $D_{0.2}$ width (width of the line at 20% below the local pseudo-continuum) were determined. In order to assemble a more robust Balmer-line diagnostic, which is particularly needed when using lower signal-to-noise SDSS spectra, the Balmer-line widths were averaged to obtain a single EW and $D_{0.2}$ for each T_{eff} , $\log g$ and $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]$. In averaging the three Balmer-line widths, the scatter in the final averaged line width was less than 2% for both EW and $D_{0.2}$ throughout the grid. The final grid includes 756 grid points, ranging over $5500 \text{ K} \leq T_{\text{eff}} \leq 9750 \text{ K}$; $2.0 \leq \log g \leq 4.5$; $-3.0 \leq [\text{Fe}/\text{H}] \leq 0.0$.

To set model boundaries for the “non-variable” stars we use the widest possible range of Balmer lines for a given $g - r$ color. At the lower boundary this was found to be $\log g = 2.0$ and $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -3.0$, while the upper boundary is $\log g = 4.5$ and $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = 0.0$. This range in $\log g$ encompasses virtually all stars on the horizontal branch, as well as

high-surface-gravity main-sequence and blue straggler stars.

The line widths for stars in DR-6 were computed in the same way as that of the model data. Figure 1 shows the model $D_{0.2}$ and EW determinations as a function of $g - r$ color. The bounding lines are shown as the red solid lines; the lower line corresponds to $\log g = 2.0$, while the upper line corresponds to $\log g = 4.5$. These lines were generated using grid values, which were then fit with 7th order polynomials. The coefficients for the fits are listed in Table 1. The black points are 52,315 stars from SDSS DR-6 that fall no more than 1σ above or below the bounding lines. These are considered non-variable stars. It is interesting to note the spread in data points for $g - r < -0.15$. This is the separation of blue horizontal-branch stars (lower trend) and main-sequence-gravity blue stars (upper trend).

The green data points with error bars are the stars that are found to be inconsistent with the non-variable bounding lines. Lack of consistency is determined by demanding that the data points are more than 1σ outside of the bounding lines for the $D_{0.2}$, EW, and $g - r$ values. The total number of green data points is 5,931. (Note that the apparent overlap of green error bars with the lower bounding line near $g - r = 0.25$ is only due to vertical bars at the end of the horizontal error bar.)

In Figure 1, the green data points that appear above the upper boundary line are stars for which the Balmer-line width is much larger than expected, given the $g - r$ color. In the case of RR Lyrae variables, stars above the upper boundary are those for which the spectroscopy was taken near maximum light, while the $g - r$ was obtained near minimum light. The green data points below the lower boundary line are stars for which the Balmer-line width is smaller than expected, given the $g - r$ color, which applies when spectroscopy was taken minimum light, while the $g - r$ color was taken near maximum light.

Finally, absent from this plot are a total of 24,704 stars which were culled from the total sample because they did not pass our minimum criteria for uncertainty in $D_{0.2}$ and in EW. The criteria for acceptance is a 10% uncertainty in the $D_{0.2}$, and a 15% uncertainty in the EWs, respectively (hereafter 10/15). Figures 2a and 2b show the uncertainty in the respective line widths as a function of the $D_{0.2}$ line-width parameter. The acceptance criteria can be seen as the red dashed line in both plots. These limits were chosen to include the majority of the locus of points seen near the bottom of each plot.

3. The Calibration

3.1. Theoretical

As shown in Figure 1, there are a very large number of stars for which the Balmer-line widths and $g - r$ colors are found to be inconsistent with one another. It is crucial to quantify the actual number of stars that we can expect to truly be RR Lyrae variables from this sample. To begin this procedure we first look at the theoretical region of parameter space where we would expect to find the most RR Lyrae variables.

Smith (1995) reports that the mean effective temperature for the hottest RRc variables is $T_{\text{eff}} \sim 7400$ K, while the mean for the coolest RRab variables is $T_{\text{eff}} \sim 6100$ K. We have constructed a theoretical bounding box which represents the Balmer-line widths and $g - r$ colors for these two limits. The box was determined using an actual range of 6000 K to 7500 K with parameters drawn from our grid of theoretical parameters; the box is shown in green in Figure 3. This particular box uses a $\log g = 2.5$ and $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -1.5$. We have experimented with a range of surface gravities and abundances, but these variations lead to only very modest shifts in the box location.

From this exercise it is clear that a large percentage of the RR Lyrae candidates from

Figure 1 are misidentified, since they clearly lie well outside of the theoretical confines of the instability strip. We therefore have placed more stringent constraints on the identification of the RR Lyrae sample. In Figure 3 the new sample, shown in black, was selected using a criteria of 5% uncertainty in $D_{0.2}$, 10% uncertainty in EW, and uncertainty in $g - r$ less than 0.03 magnitudes (hereafter 5/10). As before, to be considered a variable candidate, a star must be lie more than 1σ outside the bounding lines for $D_{0.2}$, EW, and $g - r$, simultaneously. The total number of stars found using these criteria is 2,142.

Even with our more stringent criteria, it is clear that there remains a significant number of candidates that we would not interpret to be variable stars. The obvious region is the large number of stars above the $\log g = 4.5$ bounding line and above the theoretical bounding box. A portion of these stars are likely to be stars with $\log g > 4.5$. Blueward of $g - r = 0.1$, the Balmer- line width grows rapidly for main-sequence-gravity stars; stars with $\log g > 4.5$ would be expected to lie noticeably above the boundary at this point. The other, less noticable, region of concern is below the $\log g = 2.0$ boundary, near $g - r = 0.25$. In this region the Balmer-line diagnostic is losing its effectiveness. Furthermore, the number of stars in this region skyrockets as we include more stars located near the main-sequence turnoff. In this region, the chance of misidentifications is quite high, arising from random scatter among the tens of thousands of turnoff stars.

3.2. Empirical Calibration: SDSS Stripe 82

In a recent publication, Sesar et al. (2007) compared the multi-epoch photometry observations of Stripe 82 (S82) in the SDSS to 613 variable objects identified in the SDSS LMCC. Of the RR Lyrae variable stars in this sample, 220 have follow-up SDSS spectroscopy available, and offer an excellent sample with which to test our variability identification technique. In total, there are 298 spectra available in DR-6 for the 220 stars.

Fifty stars have multiple spectra (between 2 and 5 spectra); the remaining sample of 170 stars have single spectroscopic observations.

For this calibration sample we are using the best re-run photometry from the psf magnitudes, with extinction corrections. The photometric measurements are identical for all of the spectroscopically observed stars. For a typical analysis of non-variable stars, we would usually either average the stellar parameters from multiple spectroscopic observation or choose the best available data to analyze. In the case of RR Lyrae variables, the spectral parameters are changing throughout the phase of pulsation (see §4), which removes the option of averaging the derived parameters. Since the multiple spectra for a given star were taken at random epochs in the pulsation phase, we choose to begin our comparison analysis by treating each spectrum as if it were a unique star ($N = 298$). We further test our discovery efficiency from the sample of singly spectroscopically-observed stars ($N = 170$). As will be shown below, the choice of the analysis approach has little effect on the determined efficiency.

Figure 4 is a plot of the known RR Lyrae variables, with black dots representing RRAb types and blue dots representing RRC types. The green bounding box is our theoretically predicted range for the RR Lyrae instability strip. It is immediately obvious that the theoretical bounds encompass a large percentage of the known variable stars. We have therefore chosen to limit the parameter space for RR Lyrae identification in order to minimize the amount of contamination from misidentified variables.

Given the partial spectroscopic follow-up observation in DR-6, it is difficult to fully address the final completeness of this sample. Of the 416 identified RR Lyrae variable stars found in the LMCC, only 220 have spectroscopic observations. Because of the concentrated observational efforts for objects in S82, this is probably not fully representative of the spectroscopic completeness of the rest of DR-6. Furthermore, our technique only identifies

those variables that have spectroscopic and photometric observations that are taken out of phase; spectroscopic and photometric observations which by chance have been taken in phase will be missed. Finally, because of the uncertainty criteria placed on the observed data (discussed above) the completeness of the sample decreases dramatically as one approaches $g = 19$.

Our primary goal is to maximize the discovery efficiency, quantified by the percentage of true variables to identified candidates. To this end, we choose to re-scale our theoretically-determined instability strip. The final limits are set in part by the empirical data of Sesar et al. (2007), and in part by the desire to avoid large numbers of non-variable stars that would otherwise be scattered (due to observational error) into the limits of the region we consider to be occupied by true variables. Figure 4 shows the new limit box as black dashed lines. The color limit was extended to the blue in order to encompass several more identified variables. The sloped limit on the cool end helps to eliminate the enormous numbers of turn-off stars that reside in this portion of the parameter space. Finally, we did not increase the upper boundary of the box to include the few RRc variables near $g - r = 0.05$ because of the significant number of non-variable stars in this region of the plot that have Balmer-line widths consistent with $\log g$ values greater than our imposed limit of $\log g = 4.5$.

In the analysis of completeness and efficiency that follows, we consider the sample of stars in S82 that fall in the color range of $-0.4 < g - r < 0.35$. Our procedure then selects RR Lyrae candidates, which are then compared to the LMCC spectroscopic sample. We expect the completeness of the LMCC sample in S82 to be close to 100%.

Table 2 shows the completeness for various subsamples in S82, using the 5/10 and 10/15 uncertainty criteria described above. The recovery rate for the entire sample of S82 variables is quite modest (31%) when the 10/15 criteria are used. This low completeness is

primarily caused by the larger fraction of stars for which the photometric and spectroscopic observations were taken in phase. The percentage of stars which cannot be detected using this technique is 51%, which is not surprising. Inspection of Figure 1.11 of Smith (1995) shows that the percentage of time an RRab variable spends with spectral type F4-F6 (minimum light) is approximately 65%. Using this relation, we would expect to have two unique observations taken at minimum light a fraction equal to $0.65 \times 0.65 = 42\%$ of the time. The in-phase, maximum-light probability would be 12%. Therefore, the percentage of time that two observations will be taken in phase is expected to be 54% (the out-of-phase fraction being 46%), which is consistent with our findings.

It is informative to explore the expected completeness within the confines of our instability limits, but also considering the out-of-phase detection threshold. It is clear that the more conservative 5/10 criteria recovers a significantly lower percentage of RR Lyraes ($\sim 42\%$) compared to the 10/15 criteria ($\sim 58\%$). This result also applies when we split the sample into RRab- and RRc-type variables. The majority of the non-recoveries occur very near the model boundaries, where the 1σ criteria for detection, in both $D_{0.2}$ and EW, result in a modest number of losses.

Table 3 shows the percentage of correct identifications for the S82 sample. Based on our instability-limit criteria, the efficiency of the 5/10 and 10/15 analyses are found to be $\sim 54\%$ and $\sim 49\%$, respectively. This improves to $\sim 70\%$ for sample stars with $g < 18$. It is also interesting to note that there were no positive detections for $g < 19$ using either of these criteria; our selection efficiency for stars fainter than this limit is likely to be very low.

To improve our selection efficiency, we next explore the color space of the S82 sample. Figure 5a shows $u - g$ as a function of $g - r$ for the candidate variable stars in S82 identified with the 10/15 criterion. The small filled circles are the predicted variables from our procedure, while the large circles represent the known RR Lyrae variables that fall in

the identification areas. It is immediately clear from this plot that a significant number of misidentified candidates inhabit the region of the plot where $u - g < 1.0$. The boxed region in the plot is the area defined by Ivezić et al. (2005), which has been shown to encompass a color space that represents nearly 100% completeness for RR Lyrae variables. Although Figure 5a shows that nearly all variables fall within these bounds, there remains a small percentage of misidentified variables in the range $0.98 \leq u - g \leq 1.03$. Since we are primarily concerned with detection efficiency, we use the color cut $u - g \geq 1.03$ to identify candidate variables. Although this choice may remove a small percentage of RR Lyrae from our sample, it will more importantly remove a significant number of misidentifications.

Figure 5b shows further reasons for our choice of color cuts. The large red circles in this Figure are the entire spectroscopic sample of known variables in S82. The small black circles are our entire DR-6 sample of candidates identified by the 10/15 criterion. It is clear from inspection that very few RR Lyrae variables inhabit the bottom portion of the Ivezić et al. bounding region. The full candidate sample, however, has a similar density of stars in this region as in the area immediately above. This suggests that the vast majority of the stars below the $u - g = 1.03$ cutoff are in fact misidentifications. By application of this color cut, Table 3 shows that our identification efficiency jumps to 84% and 77% for the two criteria. For stars with $g < 18$, the detection efficiency improves to 91% for the 5/10 criterion. Although this efficiency is slightly higher than found for the 10/15 criterion, the completeness for the 10/15 sample is markedly higher than for the 5/10 criterion. Thus, we choose to use the 10/15 criterion for the remainder of this paper. Figure 6 is a final plot of the S82 sample, constructed from application of the 10/15 criterion along with the $u - g$ color cut. The green error bars represent the candidate variables for S82. Very few misidentifications remain in the sample shown.

We now test the efficiency of variable detection by comparing the candidate list from

S82 to the smaller subsample of stars which have only one spectroscopic observation ($N = 170$). The results based on application of the two criteria (with color cuts) are listed in Table 4. Although the efficiency is now slightly lower, the two samples still have around 75% – 80% efficiency for stars with $g < 19$. This value should be considered a lower limit on the procedure efficiency, because we have used the original S82 sample for our analysis, but have removed correctly-identified stars with multiple spectroscopic observations.

As a final test of our procedure, we have allowed the inclusion of stars with multiple spectroscopic observations, but have only counted the positive identifications *once* for a given star. The results of this test are listed at the bottom of Table 4. We have again recovered an efficiency similar to our first attempt, in excess of 80% for the sample with limiting magnitude of $g = 19$. Furthermore, all tests suggest that a sample of variable stars with $g < 18$ and selected with the 5/10 criteria will suffer no more than 10% to 15% misidentification.

3.3. The McDonald Observatory Sample

To further test our procedure we have initiated a program to identify variable stars selected from SDSS DR-5 using our routines. The ultimate goal of this program is to construct full light curves for stars of particular interest in the study of halo substructure. We present here our first efforts at identifying true variable stars from the candidates we have selected. This sample is of interest because it is not confined to Stripe 82, but rather, drawn from the full SDSS DR-5 database.

Data from three separate runs have been obtained at McDonald Observatory using the 0.8m telescope with the Prime Focus Corrector (PFC). The PFC uses a Loral Fairchild 2048 by 2048 pixel CCD, with a pixel size of $1.35''$, and a resulting field of view of $46.2'$ by

46.2'. Smaller sections of the chip were used to reduce the readout time on observing runs dedicated to observing RR Lyrae candidate stars. All candidates were observed at airmass less than 1.6, and with integration times ranging from 100 to 300 seconds. Whenever possible, multi-filter observations (either Johnson BV or VR) were made in order to test variability in both bandpasses.

All of the data were processed using standard reduction techniques, including bias and flat field corrections. The bulk of the reductions were performed using CCDPROC in IRAF¹. The RR Lyrae candidate stars observed were sufficiently isolated to allow aperture photometry to be performed using the commercial package MIRA (Newberry 1992). Differential photometry was then performed, using the resulting instrumental magnitudes. A selection of stars was taken from each field to find stars to use as comparisons. Standard deviations were calculated from the magnitudes of these stars, and those with the least scatter were selected to use as comparison stars. The average magnitude was calculated for each star from their measured magnitude on each image, and the offset from this mean was found for each standard. The offsets for all standards on a given image were then averaged to obtain a correction for that image. The offsets were then applied to the measured magnitudes for the suspected variable and selected comparison stars for each image. The results were plotted in order to verify that the comparison stars exhibited non-variable light curves. If the light curves suggested that the values for a given image systematically varied from a flat curve, a second average was calculated, and the offsets were found and applied again. Two iterations proved sufficient in order to flatten the curves of the comparison stars.

¹IRAF is distributed by the National Optical Astronomy Observatories, which are operated by the Association of Universities for Research in Astronomy, Inc., under cooperative agreement with the National Science Foundation

We were not concerned with obtaining calibrated magnitudes, since any stars shown to be variables are being targeted for follow-up observations to obtain complete light curves. The procedures described above removed the effects of differing air mass or changing observing conditions, and allowed us to achieve our present goal of the verification of variability.

While the light curves alone could be used to make some statement of variability, we wanted further confirmation. We adopted the statistical analyses detailed in Sesar et al. (2007) to make more quantitative measures of the variability of the candidate stars. Sesar et al. searched for RR Lyraes in Stripe 82 of the SDSS. Each star they observed generally had a small number of observations, taken at random times (driven by the SDSS Supernova Survey cadence), so rather than attempting light curve fitting they employed low-order statistics to determine variability. Our data is not obtained in the same manner, but, like theirs, it does not provide sufficient observations to obtain full light curves, so we chose to use their statistical approach.

Sesar et al. used two criteria to choose variable stars from their large data set, which appear as equations 1-4 in their paper. Their criteria for selection is:

$$\sigma(\nu) \geq 0.05 \text{ mag}$$

$$\chi^2(\nu) \geq 3,$$

where σ is computed from the RMS deviation of the individual measures and the average photometric errors, $\xi(m)$, and χ^2 is computed from the variance in each observation divided by the individual photometric uncertainties; this quantity is used to test the departure of the measurements from a Gaussian distribution of errors.

Terms were calculated for each color, where available, to further confirm variability. For our calculations, we used the empirical photometric error resulting from our aperture

photometry as ξ . Further errors introduced from atmospheric changes were neglected, since these were suppressed if not eliminated by the process of flattening the curves of the comparison stars.

Among the limited observations we were able to carry out in this initial investigation, there were 15 stars that we could confidently assign into variable or non-variable classifications. Four additional stars require additional data in order to confirm their status. For these stars, the formal statistics indicate they are not variable, but the partial light curve suggest otherwise. These stars will be observed again on a later date, so that we can make a final decision on their variability status. The results are listed in Tables 5, 6, and 7. Figure 7 shows a characteristic light curve for one of our variable stars, and one lightcurve for a non-variable object.

Of the 15 stars that we could confidently classify, 7 are variable. Of these seven, 2 fail to exceed the $\chi^2 > 3$ criterion in one or both colors. Star SDSS J165340.87+342302.8 has a χ^2 in V of 2.641, and a χ^2 in B of 6.064. The partial light curve exhibits clear changes, so we designate it as variable. SDSS J130707.52+580039.2 has $\chi^2 = 2.821$ in V and 2.845 in R. Again, when considering the partial light curve, we confidently identify the star as variable. This may indicate that $\chi^2 > 3$ is an overly conservative criterion.

Figure 8 shows a plot of $D_{0.2}$ vs. $g - r$ for the 7 confirmed candidates and the 8 stars that show no signs of variability. All 7 of the variable stars fall within the region of this plot for an expected variable detection. Of the 8 non-variable stars, 3 fall within the bounding lines for non-variability. These stars were mistakenly chosen to be candidates because of an error in the Balmer- line averaging software in an early version for the DR-2 sample. Although they are mistakes, we have included them in the sample because they are found to indeed be non-variable. One non-variable star lies above the limiting bounds of our instability bounding box, which we did not implement prior to observing. Four of

the non-variables were misidentifications at the telescope. It is interesting to note that 3 of these stars lie in the region where we might expect to find more RRc variables with low amplitude oscillations that may have escaped our small number of observations ($N = 5 - 7$). The final result for the McDonald study is 7 out of 11 variable detections, for an efficiency of 63.6%.

4. Analysis of Sample

4.1. The Multiple Spectra Sample

As discussed by Smith (1995), the Balmer-line strength increases as an RR Lyrae variable star approaches maximum light. Also, as is shown in Smith’s Figure 1.12, the radial velocity, due to the expansion of the photosphere near maximum phase, quickly changes from positive values to negative values ($\sim -40 \text{ km s}^{-1}$) in RRab variables. It is therefore expected that a variable star’s radial velocity and Balmer-line widths should exhibit an anti-correlation during the pulsation phase.

To explore this effect in the DR-6 sample, we have chosen a set of 19 stars that have more than three spectroscopic observations. According to the LMCC classifications, this sample has a total of 13 RRab and 6 RRc variables. Figure 9a shows the radial velocity for the RRab sample as a function of the $D_{0.2}$ line width. The solid line is a linear regression to the data points for each star, and exhibits a general decrease in radial velocity as the line width grows. A similar effect is seen for the RRc variables shown in Figure 9b, but to a much lesser extent, with more modest changes in both line width and radial velocity.

We use linear regressions to map the overall changes in line width and radial velocity for both the RRab and RRc variables. Figure 10 shows the trends for both types of stars. Although any single star with data taken at a random phase will not exhibit the full

extent of the expected changes, the entire group of RRab exhibits an overall change in line width of $\sim 12\text{\AA}$, and an overall change in velocity of $\sim 75\text{ km s}^{-1}$, in keeping with expectations. The RRC sample exhibits a much smaller range in Balmer-line widths, and a nearly constant change in radial velocity of $\sim -20\text{ km s}^{-1}$. This is a smaller range in radial-velocity variations that might be expected for RRC variables, however, one variable does exhibit an overall change of $\sim -45\text{ km s}^{-1}$, in keeping with that expected for RRC variables from minimum to maximum light (Smith 1995).

These results strongly suggest that the DR-6 data is of sufficient quality to detect overall differences in the radial velocity data due to pulsation, and that the sense of the shift will be anti-correlated with the change in Balmer-line width.

Our procedure samples two regions in the Balmer-line width, $g - r$ color plane. The upper region is consistent with the Balmer lines being observed near maximum light and the $g - r$ color index being measured near minimum light. The lower region is the reverse. It is therefore expected that the two regions should show an overall average difference in radial velocity, with the upper region having a more negative velocity than the lower region. We test this by again returning to the LMCC sample, and examining multiple spectra of stars that are detected in either the upper or lower region, and also in the bounding non-variable region. This sample contained no stars with spectral observations in both the upper and lower detection areas. We therefore chose to compare the in-phase velocities to the velocities from the out-of-phase detection areas. The average difference in velocity for the upper region minus the in-phase spectra ($N = 8$) was $\langle v \rangle = -29.7\text{ km s}^{-1}$, while the lower region minus the in-phase spectra ($N = 9$) was $\langle v \rangle = +27.9\text{ km s}^{-1}$.

The above result suggests that we should find an average difference between the upper and lower detection areas when comparing our entire sample of stars. The expected amplitude of this average difference is difficult to predict because the in-phase stars from

the above analysis can be at any random pulsation phase. The above exercise suggests that we can expect average difference on the order of 30 to 50 km s⁻¹.

In order to test for radial-velocity variability in our full sample, we explore the average difference in velocity splits between the upper-region and lower-region, out-of-phase detection areas. Figure 11 shows the cumulative normalized distribution of the velocities with respect to the Galactic rest frame, v_{gsr} , for the two samples. This Figure clearly indicates a tendency for the stars chosen from the upper-region candidate sample to be shifted to more negative velocities. We interpret this shift as due to the negative velocity of pulsation experienced near Balmer-line maximum, which is superposed on the star’s systemic velocity.

For the upper-region sample ($N = 391$), $\langle v_{gsr} \rangle = -26.9$ km s⁻¹, with a standard error of the mean ± 5.6 km s⁻¹, while the lower-region sample has an average velocity of $\langle v_{gsr} \rangle = 1.4$ km s⁻¹, with a standard deviation of the mean of ± 4.3 km s⁻¹. There thus exists a nearly 3σ difference between the upper-region and lower-region samples, in the sense expected. Furthermore, the amplitude of the effect is 28.3 km s⁻¹, which is indistinguishable from the expected lower limit set by the multi-epoch spectroscopic sample. Finally, the velocity dispersion of both samples are virtually identical ($\sigma = 112$ km s⁻¹), suggesting that both are drawn from the same parent population of stars.

As a final test of variability in the full sample we search for changes in Balmer-line widths and velocities for all of the DR-6 stars that have multiple spectroscopic observations. In the S82 sample there are a total of 15 known RR Lyrae variables that have multiple spectral observations, and have been classified by our technique to be variable stars. In this sample, 9 stars exhibit greater than 1σ variations in EW, $D_{0.2}$, and velocity ($1\sigma = 10$ km s⁻¹). If we use this criteria as a spectroscopic detection of variability, 60% of the 15 stars chosen from the S82 sample would be classified as variables.

We applied the above spectroscopic variability criteria to the DR-6 sample of 39 stars with multiple spectroscopic observations that are located outside of the S82 footprint. Of these, 23 (59%) show variability in the spectroscopic features, similar to the percentage found for the known RR Lyrae sample in the S82 region. We also note that 11 of the 23 stars in the full DR-6 sample showed departures greater than 3σ , making them prime variable-star candidates. Given these results, and the aforementioned velocity shifts between the upper- and lower-region samples, we expect that this efficiency of discovery for RR Lyrae variables is maintained throughout the full DR-6 candidate sample.

Table 8 lists the entire sample of RR Lyrae candidates chosen with the 10/15 selection criteria. For stars that have multiple spectroscopic observations we have averaged the final heliocentric radial velocity. These stars are indicated by the number of spectroscopic observations. This Table also lists the stars which were identified using the more restrictive 5/10 selection criteria, for readers interested in conducting follow-up light curve observations. As noted in the calibration section above, for stars with $g < 18$ we expect 90% discovery efficiency for the 5/10 sample.

4.2. Distances

One strength of our RR Lyrae sample, selected as above, is the high percentage of correctly identified variables located at large distances. Our sample has excellent potential to identify halo substructure on the basis of distance and kinematics, and to probe kinematics along stellar streams.

RRab variables can change their apparent visual magnitudes during their pulsation cycles by as much as 1.3 magnitudes (in V), while the change in RRc variables is a more modest 0.5 magnitudes. Because of these large variations, distances to RR Lyraes are

typically computed using the average magnitude of the star, based on either a simple average of the maximum and minimum magnitudes, or an arithmetic mean over the entire pulsation cycle. Use of a single magnitude measurement, taken at a random phase, can introduce significant error in the derived distance. Considering the full variation in apparent magnitude from peak to peak, the effect on the derived distance could be as large as $\sim 45\%$ for stars with the typical brightness of our sample. Since our sample has only one photometric observation, it is not possible to directly compute an average apparent magnitude for an individual star. Instead, we have developed a simple magnitude estimation procedure, based on a star’s measured $g - r$ color relative to the $\langle g - r \rangle$ for the entire sample.

Our estimation procedure makes use of the fact that a variable’s $g - r$ color changes as a function of the pulsation phase, with the bluest color occurring near maximum light and the reddest near minimum light. We adopted the simple assumption that a one-to-one correspondence exists, for a given variable, between its $\langle g \rangle$ magnitude (averaged over its pulsation cycle) and its $\langle g - r \rangle$ color. Although the color limits for a given variable depends on its location within the instability strip, and in part on its metallicity, we make a further simplifying assumption that all variables in our sample cover the same range in $g - r$, and that this range is set by the empirical limits imposed by our selection criteria. These two assumptions essentially allow us to treat our sample as a single variable observed at various points during its pulsation phase. We then use the $\langle g - r \rangle$ for the entire sample to derive the observed color shift of a given variable from the sample mean. This shift is used to calculate an expected offset from the average $\langle g \rangle$ magnitude of the star, which can be applied to the observed g magnitude to obtain an estimate of the true $\langle g \rangle$ of the star.

In practice, we have also separated potential RRab and RRc variables in our sample.

RRc variables are systematically bluer than RRab variables, so the use of $\langle g - r \rangle$ for the complete sample would introduce a systematic offset. Inspection of the LMCC variables in Figure 4 shows that the RRc variables are primarily confined to the upper left-hand corner of the instability region, so we use this region to construct limits for the RRc stars in our sample. The $D_{0.2}$ and $\langle g - r \rangle$ limits of the RRc bounding box are given by:

$$14.00 < D_{0.2} < 21.77$$

$$-0.17 < g - r < 0.14.$$

We next test our procedure to see if the simplifying assumptions we have made predict average magnitudes that more closely represent the $\langle g \rangle$ magnitude. We use the simultaneous Cousins BV observations of four well-known variables (BH Peg, SS Leo, UU Vir, and X Ari) reported by Carrillo et al. (1995). These RRab variables were observed more than 180 times, and span a wide range in metal abundance ($-2.4 < [\text{Fe}/\text{H}] < -0.8$). Figure 12 shows the Carrillo et al. observations. It is immediately clear from inspection of this Figure that a strong correlation exists between the V magnitude and $B - V$ color for all four stars. The slope of the linear fit to each star exhibits a very small range (2.1 to 2.4), which indicates that the $\langle B - V \rangle$ color can be used to predict the $\langle V \rangle$ magnitude. It is also clear that color shifts exist between stars within the sample. The stars X Ari and BH Peg inhabit a redder color range than SS Leo and UU Vir. There is also a small hysteresis at the red end of the variation between the color of the rising and descending phase. When using the average color of the entire sample to predict an average magnitude for an individual star, such offsets will introduce systematic errors in the magnitude correction, depending on the location within the instability strip.

We have tested our procedure using all 813 data points for these four stars. The $\langle B - V \rangle$ color was found to be -0.468 . We also the arithmetic mean magnitude of each star individually, and compared the predicted $\langle V \rangle$ to the true mean for each star. Figure

13a is a histogram of the difference ($\langle V \rangle_{\text{predicted}} - \langle V \rangle_{\text{observed}}$). The standard deviation for this distribution is ± 0.181 magnitudes. In comparison, Figure 13b is a histogram of the difference between the observed V and $\langle V \rangle$, which is the expected distribution if no correction is applied to the data. The standard deviation for this distribution is ± 0.635 . The systematic offsets in predicted $\langle V \rangle$ for the individual stars range from -0.13 to $+0.11$. Thus, we conclude that considerable improvement to our sample distance estimates can be achieved, even if we ignore the color ranges of individual stars. The final computed uncertainty in distance using the predicted $\langle V \rangle$ magnitudes is $\pm 8.3\%$.

The other source of uncertainty in distance arises from the dependence of absolute magnitude on metal abundance. One way to correct for this effect is to determine the abundance using the inverse relationship between the CaII K and Balmer-line strengths, as employed by Layden (1994). Unfortunately, we are unable to determine reliable abundances for our sample because of the need to avoid the rising phase of pulsation when using this approach (Freeman & Rodgers 1975). We therefore estimate the additional uncertainty when this metallicity abundance dependency is ignored.

We first adopt the Demarque et al. (2000) absolute magnitude of $M_V = 0.55$ at a $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -1.60$. This value is then transformed to an absolute g magnitude, $M_g = 0.594$, using the transformation equations by Fukugita et al. (1996). Clementini et al. (2003) reports a slope in M_V as a function of $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]$ of 0.214. Assuming this same slope applies to the g absolute magnitude relationship, we obtain:

$$M_g = 0.214[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] + 0.94.$$

If we consider that the range of abundance for a typical halo sample covers $-3.0 < [\text{Fe}/\text{H}] < -0.5$, the additional uncertainty in M_g is no more than ± 0.25 . Combining this result with that of the predicted $\langle g \rangle$, we estimate that our final uncertainty in distance for typical stars in the DR-6 sample to be $\pm 14\%$.

Finally, as shown earlier in this section, the radial velocity is affected by the pulsation phase, with the spectroscopic-maximum sample exhibiting a -28 km s^{-1} offset from the spectroscopic-minimum sample. The radial velocity for RR Lyrae variables is typically assigned at minimum light, therefore we have applied the above offset to the subsample with spectroscopy taken near maximum light with the assumption that most of this subsample is also at the radial velocity minimum.

5. Results

5.1. Sample Properties

Figure 14a is a histogram of the predicted $\langle g \rangle$ -magnitudes for the DR-6 sample. The peak of the distribution occurs at $\langle g \rangle \sim 17$, and then rapidly declines for fainter magnitudes. This decline is a result of the strict uncertainty criteria placed on the sample, in particular on the Balmer-line widths. Uncertainty in the line widths increases at fainter magnitudes due to the decrease in signal-to-noise of the spectroscopy. As a result, our sample does not probe to the faintest available magnitudes in the DR-6 spectroscopic sample.

Figure 14b is a normalized cumulative histogram of the estimated distances for the sample. The position of $\langle g \rangle = 18$ and $\langle g \rangle = 19$ are marked on the distribution. As discussed in §3, the expected efficiency for the 10/15 criteria is $\sim 84\%$ for $\langle g \rangle < 18$, and $\sim 82\%$ for $\langle g \rangle < 19$. The histogram shows that 81% of the current sample exhibits $\langle g \rangle < 18$, while 94% of the sample satisfies $\langle g \rangle < 19$. Thus, we expect that nearly the entire sample has a misidentification rate smaller than 20%. Although the total DR-6 sample of candidate variables contains only 1087 stars, the relative purity of the sample allows us to probe kinematic properties that would otherwise be lost in a larger, but less

clean, sample.

5.2. Spatial Distribution and the Sagittarius Stream

Figure 15a is a plot of the Galactic YZ distribution for our sample stars, where (0,0) is the location of the Galactic center. Inspection of this Figure indicates that the sample is not uniformly distributed within the DR-6 footprint. Rather, there are holes and clumps of stars, particularly at distances greater than 10 kpc. These features are over-emphasized in this diagram because of the attention they received during spectroscopic follow-up. The two most prominent clumps are labeled as the Southern and Northern Arms of the Sagittarius Stream (larger open circles). The Southern Arm overdensity is the well-known, dynamically cold, trailing arm of the stream, while the Northern Arm is near the apogalacticon point of the Sagittarius orbit. We report on kinematic evidence for both the leading and trailing Northern Arm in Wilhelm et al. (2007). Figure 15b exhibits similar inhomogeneities in the Galactic XZ plane. We have again highlighted the Sagittarius Stream components.

We further explore our ability to recover halo substructure within our sample by comparing to published analysis of Blue Horizontal-Branch (BHB) stars in the Southern Stream. Figure 16 is a plot of the heliocentric velocity as a function of distance for stars that fall within the confines of the Southern Stream ($0^h < \alpha < 3^h$). It is clear that the sample recovers the cold trailing arm of the Sagittarius Stream. We measure the mean velocity of this clump to be $\langle v \rangle = -157.9 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, with a dispersion of $\sigma = \pm 24.1 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. The mean distance (from the Galactic center) is found to be $\langle d \rangle = 27.1 \text{ kpc}$. The distribution of stars in this plot is qualitatively similar in both velocity and distance to the clump of BHB stars shown in Figure 14 of Sirko et al. (2004) for the trailing arm. Yanny et al. (2004) also uses BHB stars to trace the trailing arm, and finds $\langle v \rangle = -160 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and $\sigma = 33 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, and an average distance $\langle d \rangle = 28 \text{ kpc}$. These values are indistinguishable

from those determined using our sample.

Based on this comparison, we gain confidence not only in the identification of the trailing arm itself, but also with our ability to compute accurate distances and velocities for the full DR-6 RR Lyrae sample.

5.3. The Northern Polar Cap

In a recent paper, Martínez-Delgado et al. (2007) predict that the leading tail of the Sagittarius Stream in the Northern hemisphere is expected to trail down nearly perpendicular to the Galactic plane. They further argue that the discoveries of the Virgo Over Density (VOD) by Jurić et al. (2005) and the clump of RR Lyrae stars (VSS) reported by Duffau et al. (2006), with $v_{gsr} = 83 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and heliocentric distance of $\sim 19 \text{ kpc}$, are consistent with the leading and trailing arms of the Sagittarius Stream, respectively (if an oblate ($q < 1$) dark matter halo is adopted). Martínez-Delgado et al. further predict that the VOD will have large negative velocities if it is actually part of the leading Sagittarius arm in the Solar neighborhood.

We now use our RR Lyrae sample to examine the Northern Polar Cap (NPC) region (defined by $b > 70^\circ$). Figure 17 shows histograms of the NPC split on distances from the Galactic plane between $5 < Z < 27 \text{ kpc}$ and $27 < Z < 45 \text{ kpc}$. It is clear from inspection of this Figure that the distribution of stars in both samples is not consistent with expectations for the general halo field population (which has $v_{gsr} \sim 0 \text{ km s}^{-1}$), and velocity dispersion on the order of 100 km s^{-1} . Furthermore, there are only two stars with $z < 8 \text{ kpc}$, so the thick disk contribution should be negligible. The more distant Z sample has an average $v_{gsr} = -48.2 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ with a dispersion of 63.2 km s^{-1} . The prominent negative velocity peak has $\langle v_{gsr} \rangle = -76.4 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and dispersion 29.8 km s^{-1} , values that are consistent

with the expected infalling leading arm of the Sagittarius Stream.

The more nearby (low Z) sample appears to be a mixture of substructure. Although there is likely a general field population present in this sample, there are also recognizable peaks within the velocity distribution. One such peak appears near $v_{gsr} \sim 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and appears to be consistent with the velocity found by Duffau et al. for the VSS. There is also a larger peak near -100 km s^{-1} which may be affiliated with the more distant detection of the leading arm. Lastly, there is a small group of stars with $Z \sim 10 \text{ kpc}$ which has an even larger negative velocity ($v_{gsr} \sim -200 \text{ km s}^{-1}$), and may associated with the VOD.

It is important to recognize the similarity of our RR Lyrae data to the models of Martínez-Delgado et al. (2007). The models presented in that paper indicate that the trailing arm and leading arm will overlap at approximately 20 kpc, and that the detection of the trailing arm may be the explanation for the positive velocities found for VSS by Duffau et al. (2006). From inspection of our data beyond $Z = 27 \text{ kpc}$, there are virtually no positive-velocity stars. Furthermore, the secondary peak found at $\sim 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ is only occupied by stars from the $Z < 27 \text{ kpc}$ subsample. This result suggests that the VSS may indeed be associated with the Sagittarius tidal stream, as predicted in the models of Martínez-Delgado et al. (2007).

Wilhelm et al. (2007) further examines the Northern Arm of the Sagittarius Stream by identifying both the leading and trailing arms across the range $110^\circ < \alpha < 220^\circ$. The results indicate that the negative-velocity sample is spread over an extended region of the sky, and is consistent with the expected distance and kinematics of the Sagittarius Stream.

6. Conclusions

The technique of using out-phase photometry and spectroscopy to detect variability was originally developed to identify a small number of potential RR Lyrae variables stars in the BHB sample of Wilhelm et al. (1999). In the past, such a procedure was not as practical for identifying large numbers of RR Lyrae variable candidates because of the large amount of telescope time required to obtain spectroscopy. Today, the unprecedented spectroscopic sample of the SDSS DR-6 has made it feasible to use this procedure to identify a large and distant sample of RR Lyrae candidates.

Based on the tests carried out in this paper, it appears that a relatively clean sample of RR Lyraes (discovery efficiency $>\sim 85\%$) can be achieved using one photometric and one spectroscopic observation from the SDSS. This is primarily due to the enormous changes in Balmer-line strength which occur during the pulsation phase of such stars.

Although the photometry for the candidate variables is taken at a random phase, we have also shown that it is possible to reasonably predict the average g magnitude for stars in the sample, in order to limit the uncertainties in derived distances. The resulting distances, velocities, and relative purity of the sample make it feasible to clearly recognize halo substructure, and to investigate properties of the Sagittarius Stream. Our sample recovers both the Southern and Northern arms of the Sagittarius Stream, and allows us to recognize the signature of the descending, leading tail of the Northern Arm.

Finally, we mention that this procedure can be also be used to recognize RR Lyrae variables for projects where precise luminosities are paramount. One example is the use of stellar probes to bracket the distances to high velocity clouds in the halo of the Galaxy (e.g., Wakker et al. 2007). Such a sample requires spectroscopy of the stellar probe in order to determine radial velocity, metal abundance, and distance to the star. Recognition of RR Lyrae variability using our technique can help constrain the distance to the stellar probes,

and ultimately the distance to the high velocity cloud.

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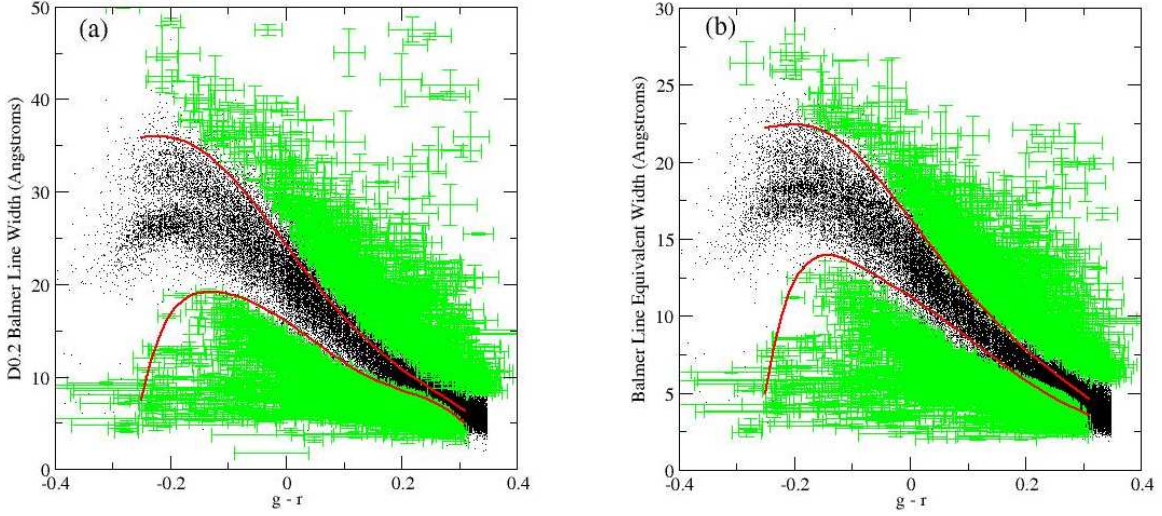


Fig. 1.— SDSS DR-6 sample showing the Balmer-line $D_{0.2}$ width as function of $g-r$ color (a) and equivalent width (b). The black dots represent stars which show no variability while the green error bars represent the stars that have inconsistency between the $g-r$ color and the Balmer-line width. Solid red lines are the boundaries for normal stars with $\log g = 2.0$ (bottom line) and $\log g = 4.5$ (top line).

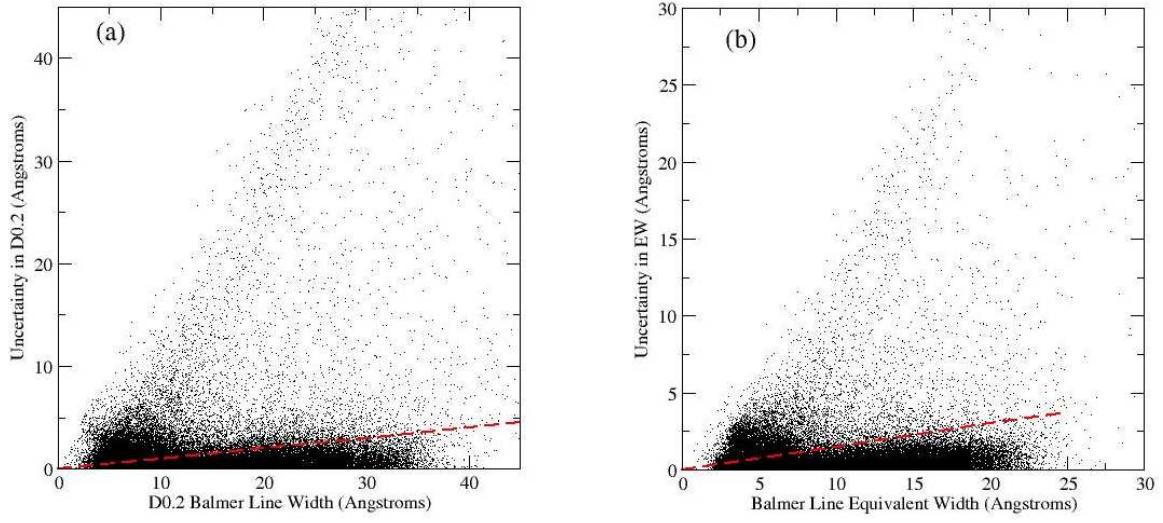


Fig. 2.— SDSS DR-6 sample showing the line-width uncertainty versus Balmer- line width for $D_{0.2}$ (a) and EW (b). The red dashed line is a constant 10% limit for $D_{0.2}$ and a 15% limit for EW, which is used to remove excessively uncertain line widths.

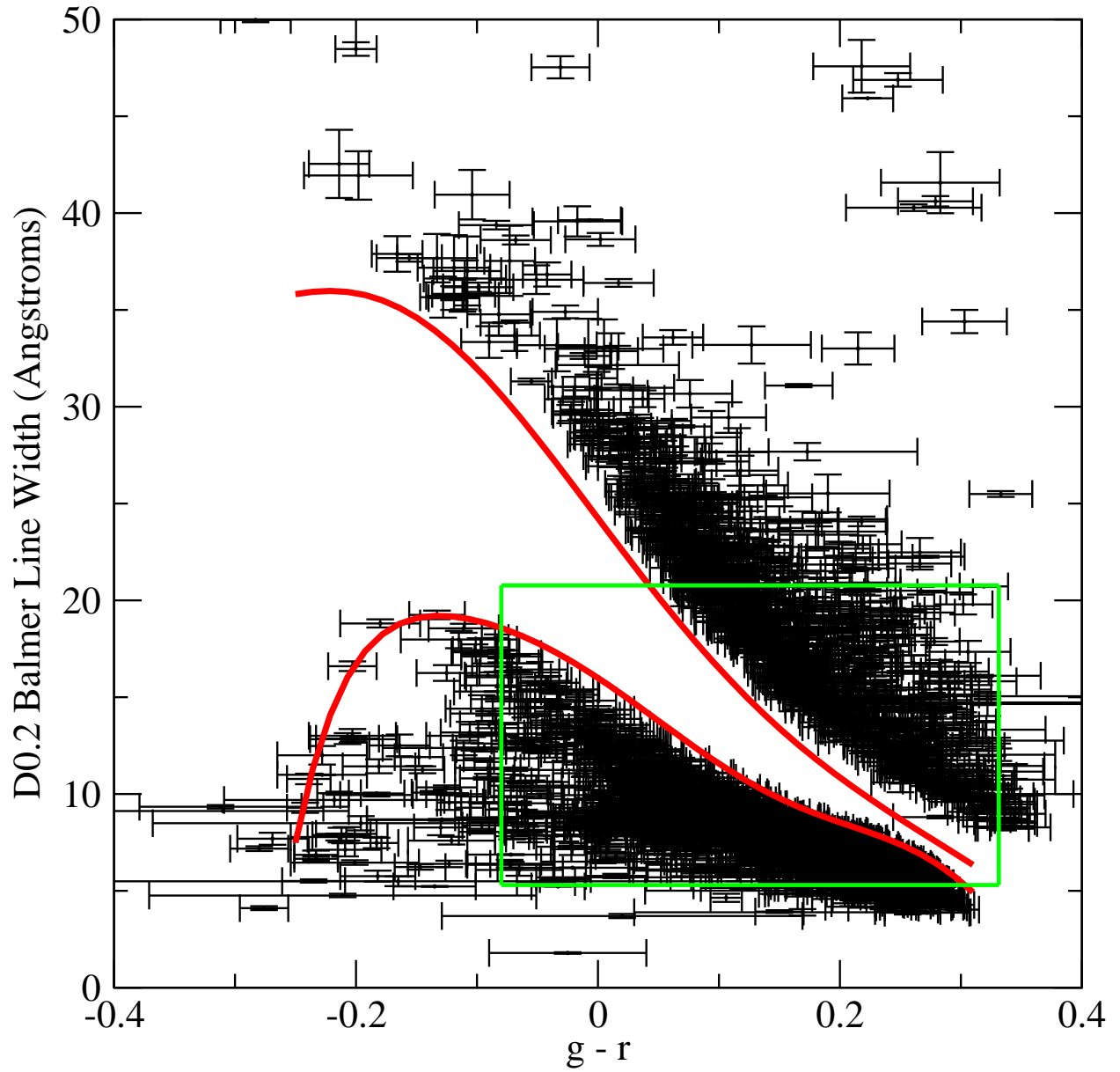


Fig. 3.— $D_{0.2}$ as a function of $g - r$ color for data that we identify as likely variables, using a $D_{0.2}$ uncertainty limit set at 5%. The green box represents the theoretical limits for instability strip parameters.

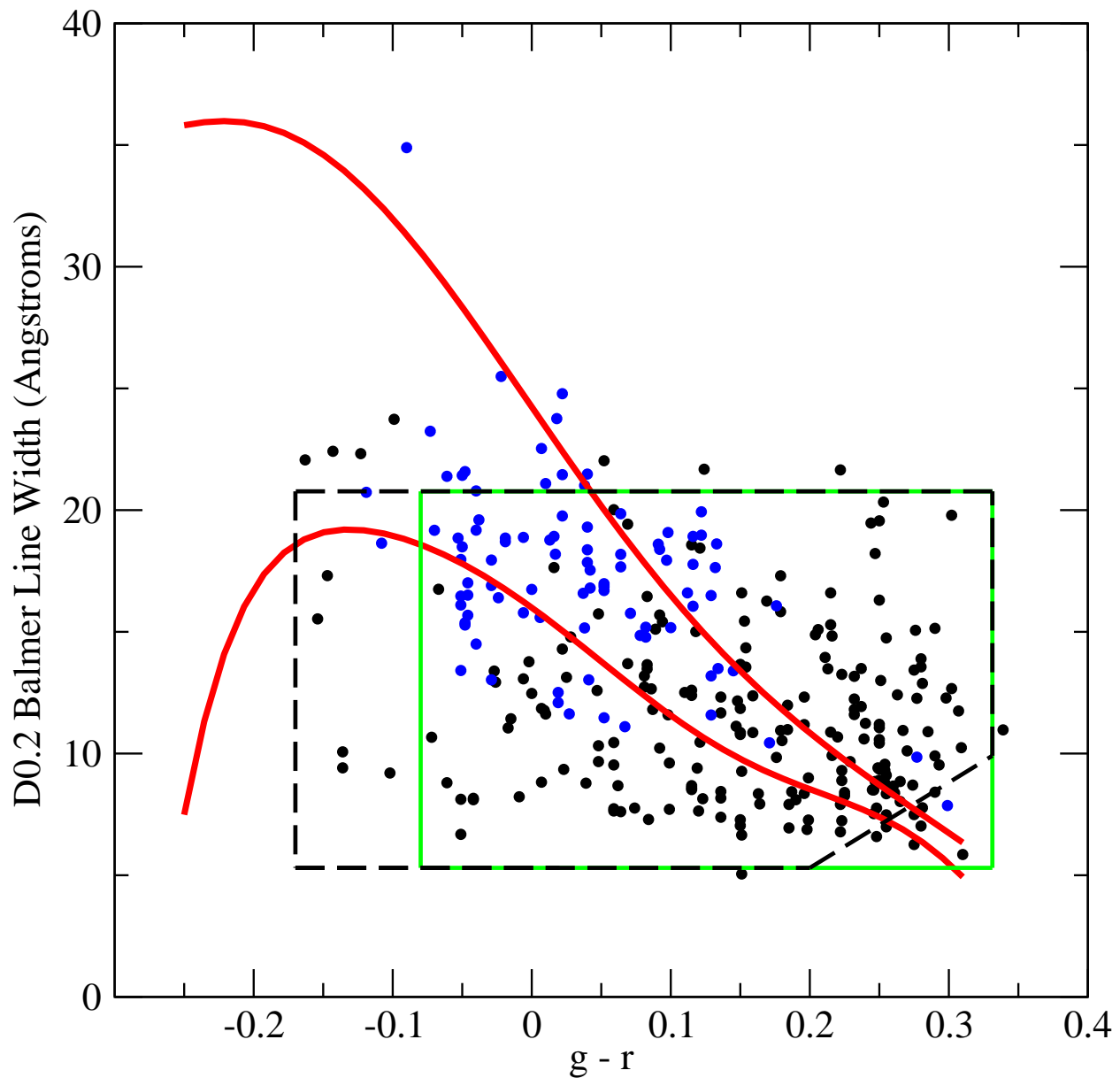


Fig. 4.— $D_{0.2}$ as a function of $g - r$ color for LMCC variables with available spectroscopy from SDSS Stripe 82. The black dots are RRab variables, while the blue dots are RRC variables. The black dashed box is the adopted, empirical, instability strip parameter limits. The green bounding box is the theoretical limits as in Figure 3. The majority of the LMCC sample falls within the confines of the empirical limits.

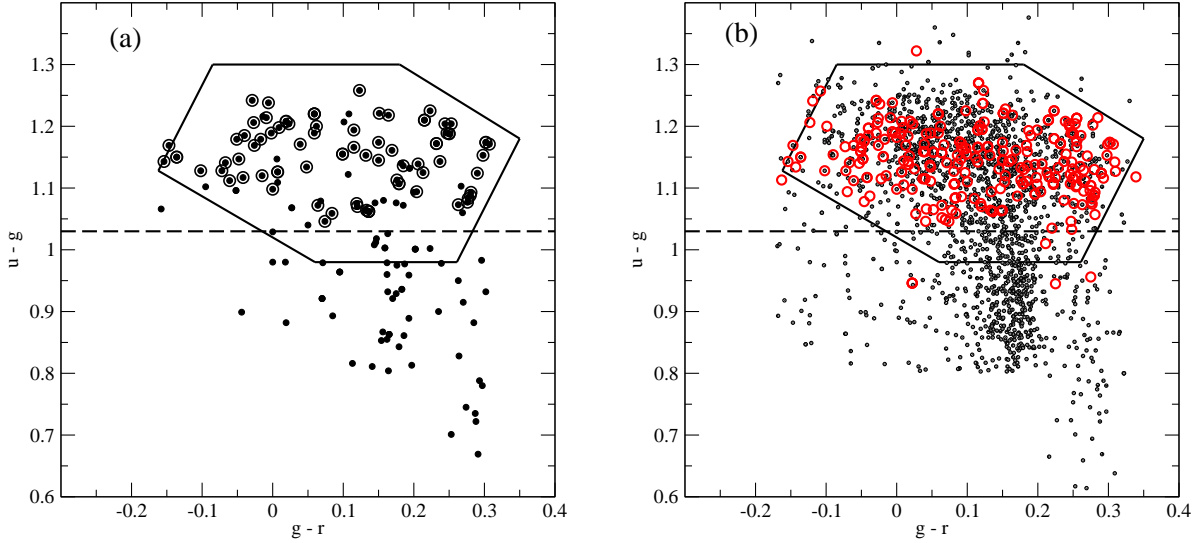


Fig. 5.— Color-color plot of the Stripe 82 sample, using the 10/15 uncertainty criteria described in the text (a). The small dots represent predicted variables from this technique, while the larger circles are known RR Lyrae variables from the LMCC. The hexagonal box is based on the color criteria by Ivezić et al. (2005), while the dashed line is our preferred $u - g$ color cut for variable stars. Panel (b) shows the entire LMCC spectroscopic sample (in red) and our entire 10/15 sample (in black). Our chosen $u - g$ color cut suggests a large gain in efficiency with minimal loss in completeness.

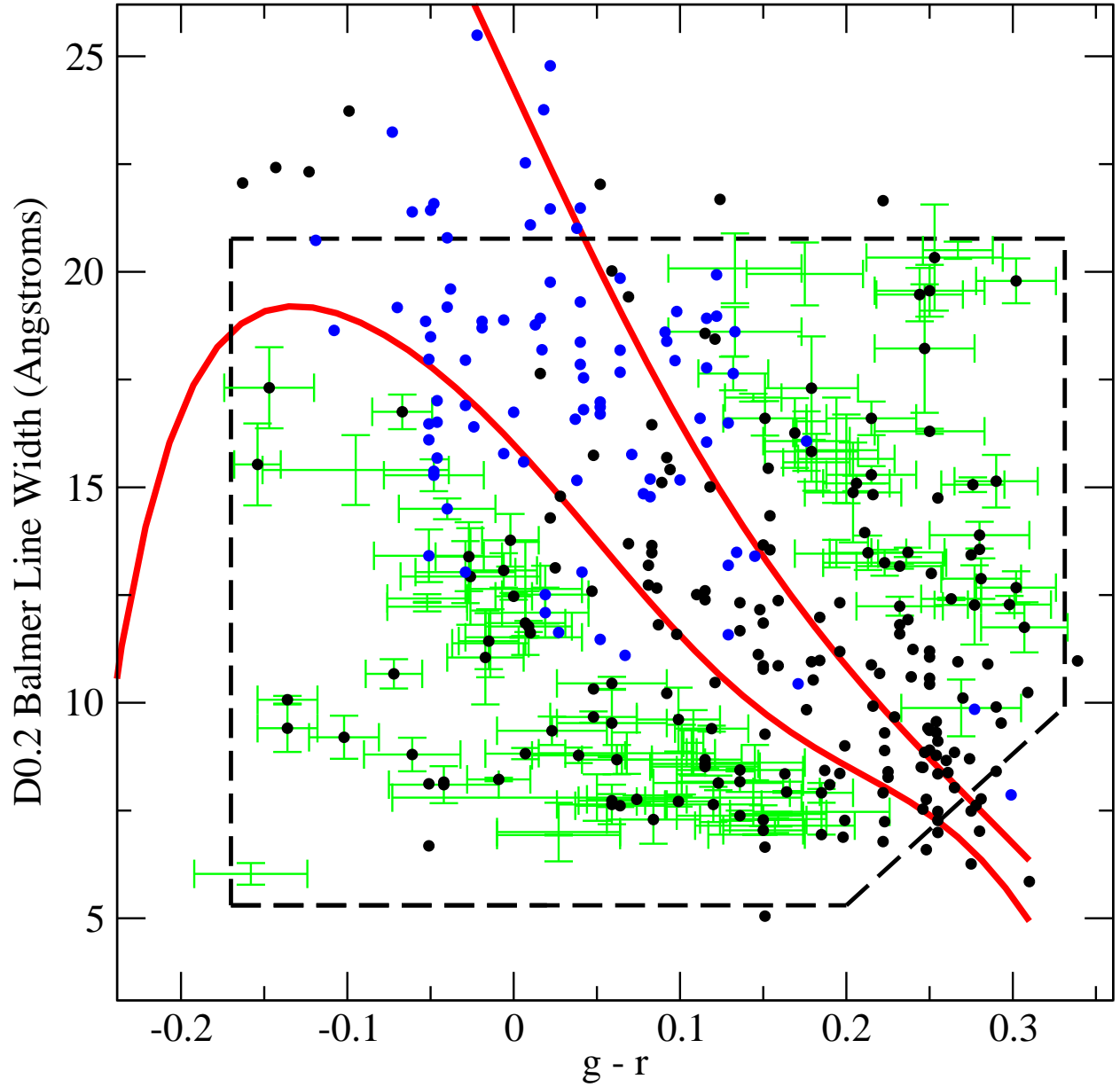


Fig. 6.— $D_{0.2}$ as a function of $g - r$ color for our final DR-6 sample with an imposed color cut. The dots are as defined in Figure 4. The green error bars are the predicted RR Lyrae variables from our technique.

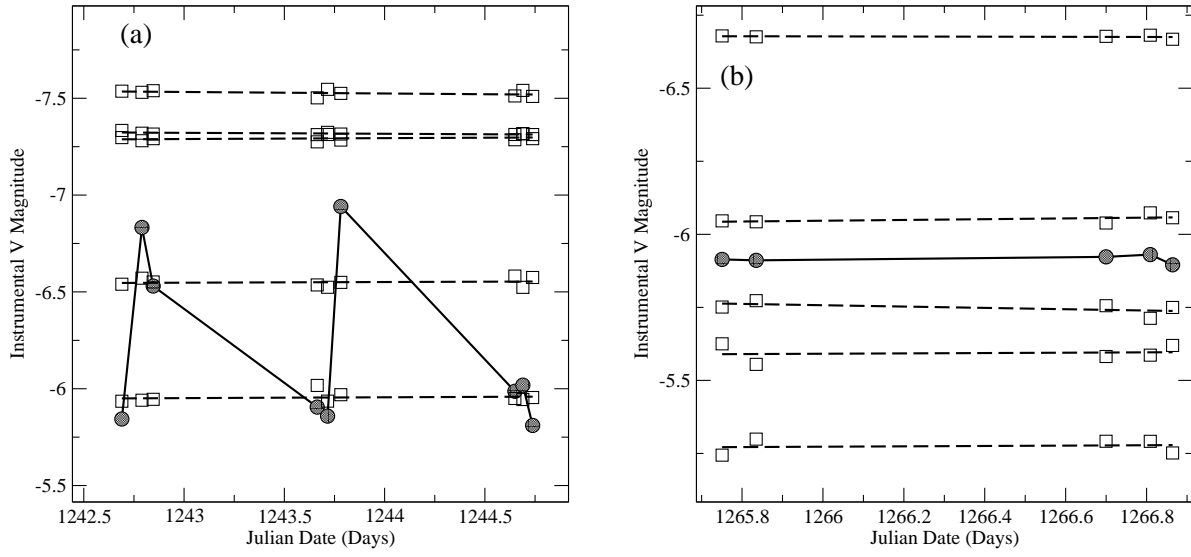


Fig. 7.— (a) Light curve (instrumental V magnitudes) for candidate SDSS J130537.39+595957.6, showing strong indication of variability, shown as black dots. (b) The flat light curve for candidate SDSS J171850.00+264608.0, indicating non-variability. The open squares in both plots are observations of other non-variable stars in each field.

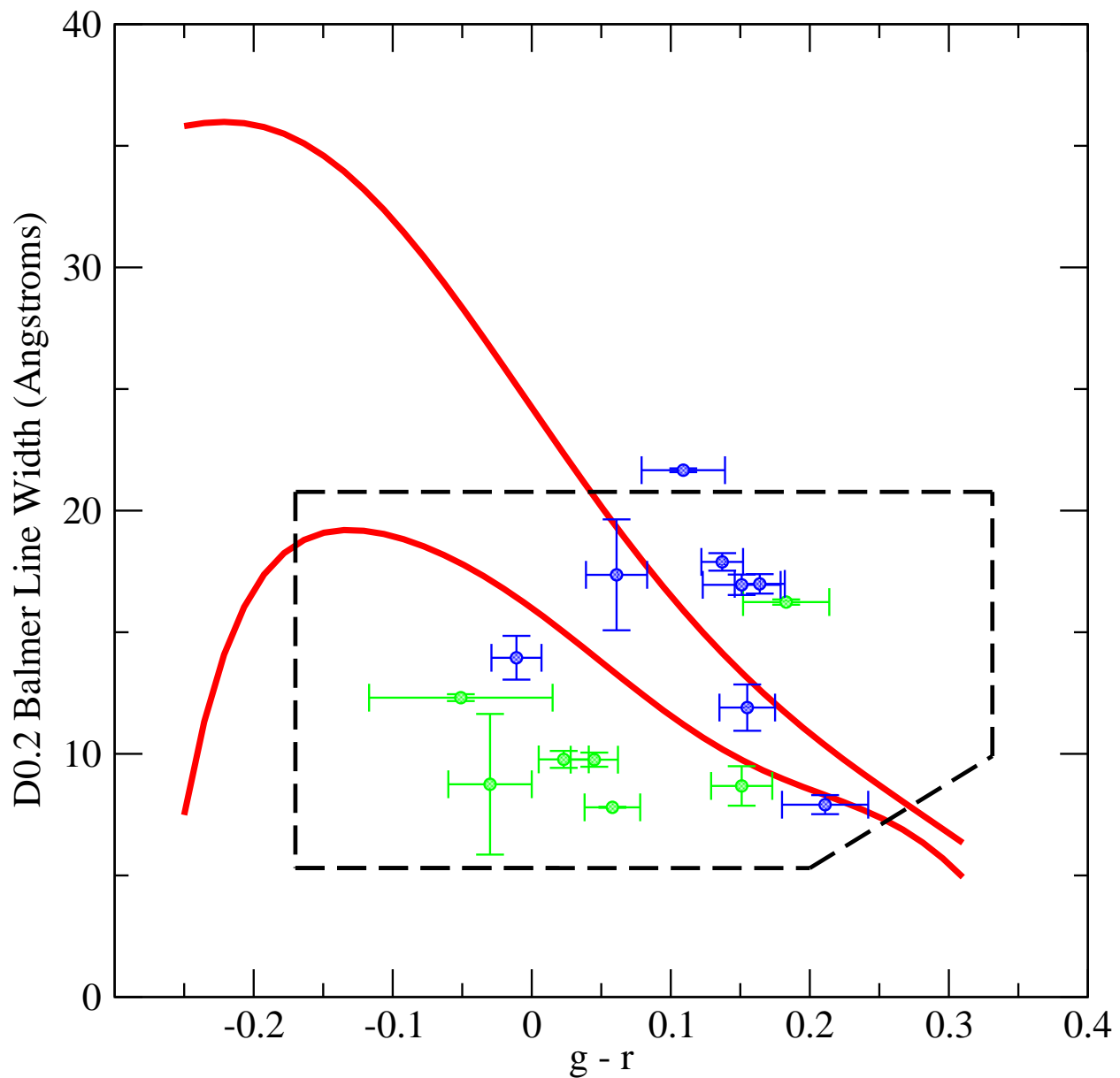


Fig. 8.— $D_{0.2}$ as a function of $g-r$ color for 15 out of variable candidates with data from the McDonald Observatory. The blue symbols indicate non-variability, while the green symbols are stars for which variability has been detected. The bounding box is the empirical limits for instability as shown in Figure 4.

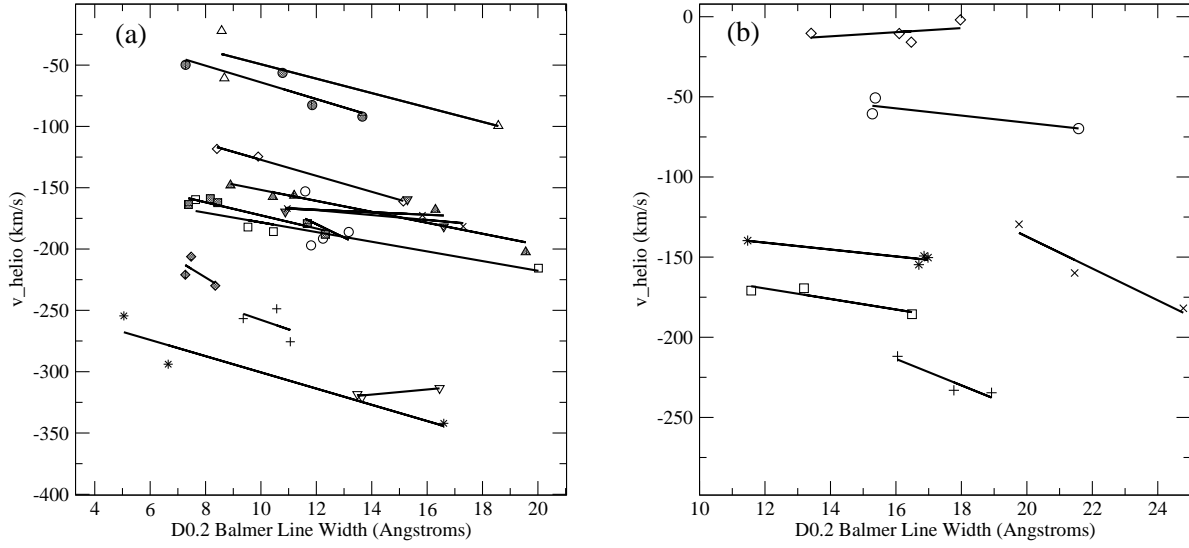


Fig. 9.— Heliocentric radial velocity as a function of $D_{0.2}$ for the LMCC RRab sample (a) and the LMCC RRC sample (b) having with $N \geq 3$ spectroscopic observations. Solid lines are linear fits to each star’s parameters. The expected anti-correlation between line-width and radial velocity is clearly seen in the RRab sample, but less evident in the RRC sample.

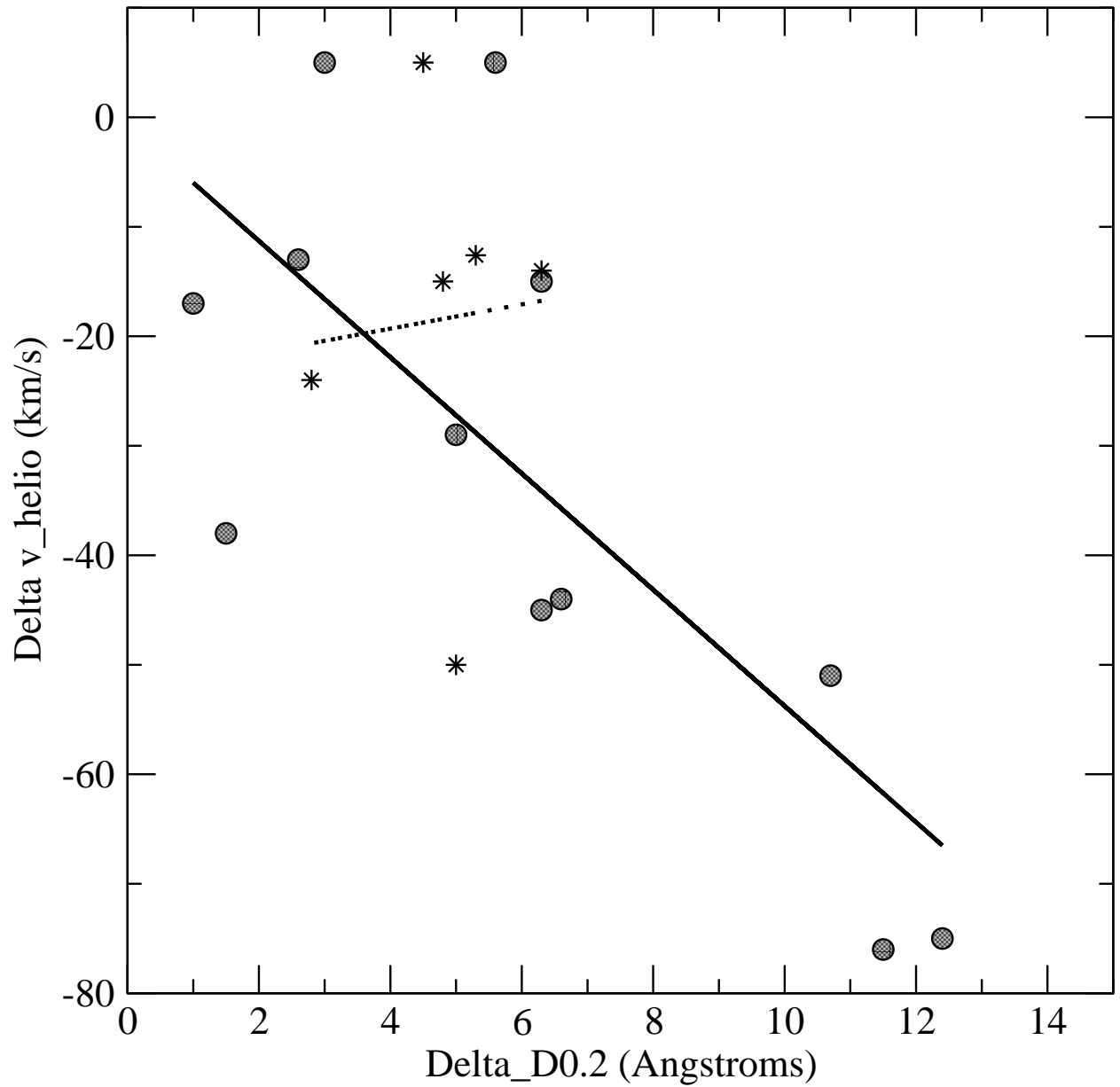


Fig. 10.— Change in heliocentric radial velocity as a function of the change in $D_{0.2}$ for the RRab sample (black dots) and the RRC sample (stars) from Figure 9. The RRab sample exhibits a range in velocity that is consistent with expectations for RRab variables. The RRC sample shows a much smaller change in velocity.

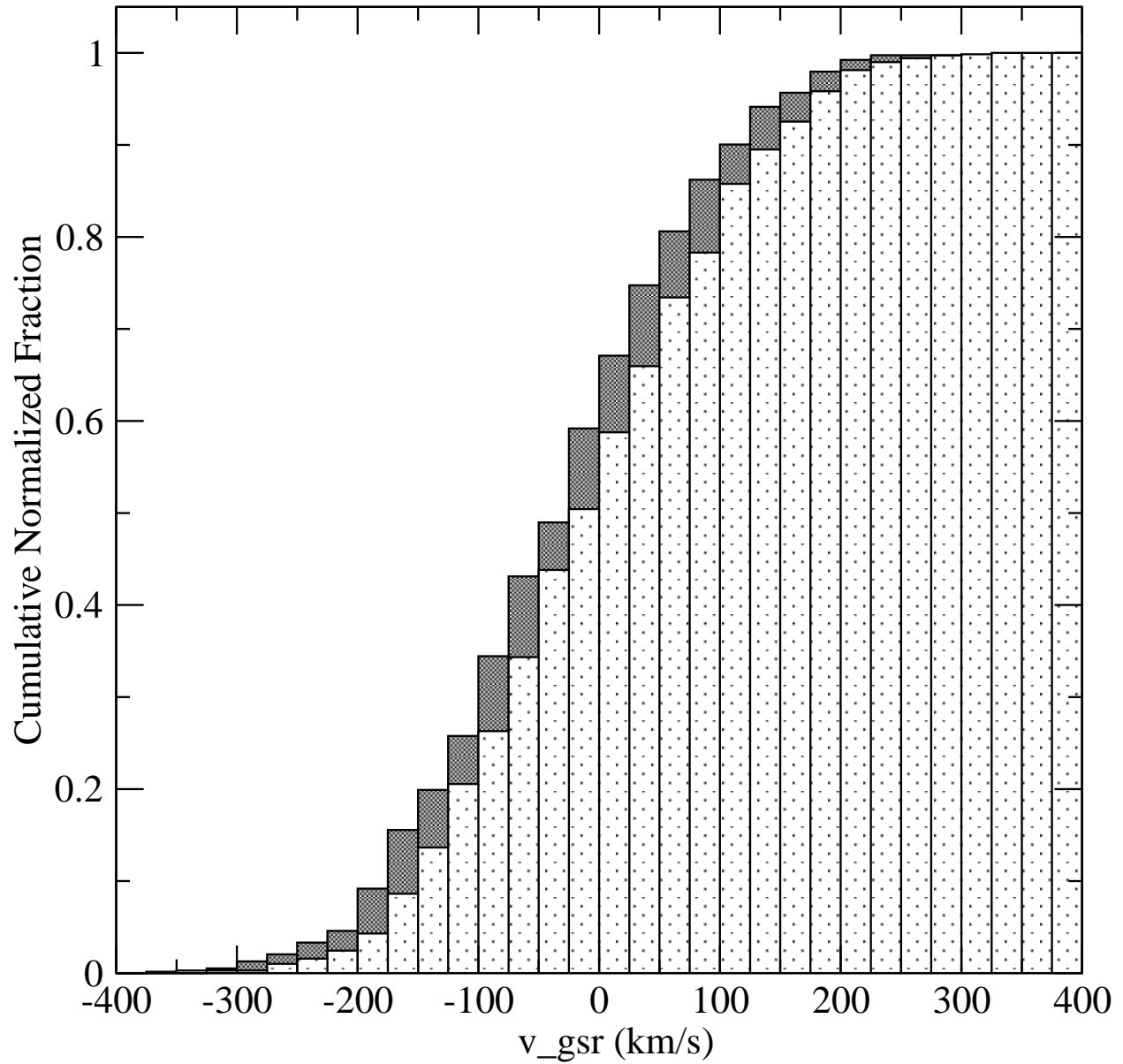


Fig. 11.— Normalized cumulative distribution plot of v_{gsr} for the sample with spectral lines near maximum (filled) and near minimum (unfilled) light. There is an overall shift between the two distributions, with maximum light being more negative.

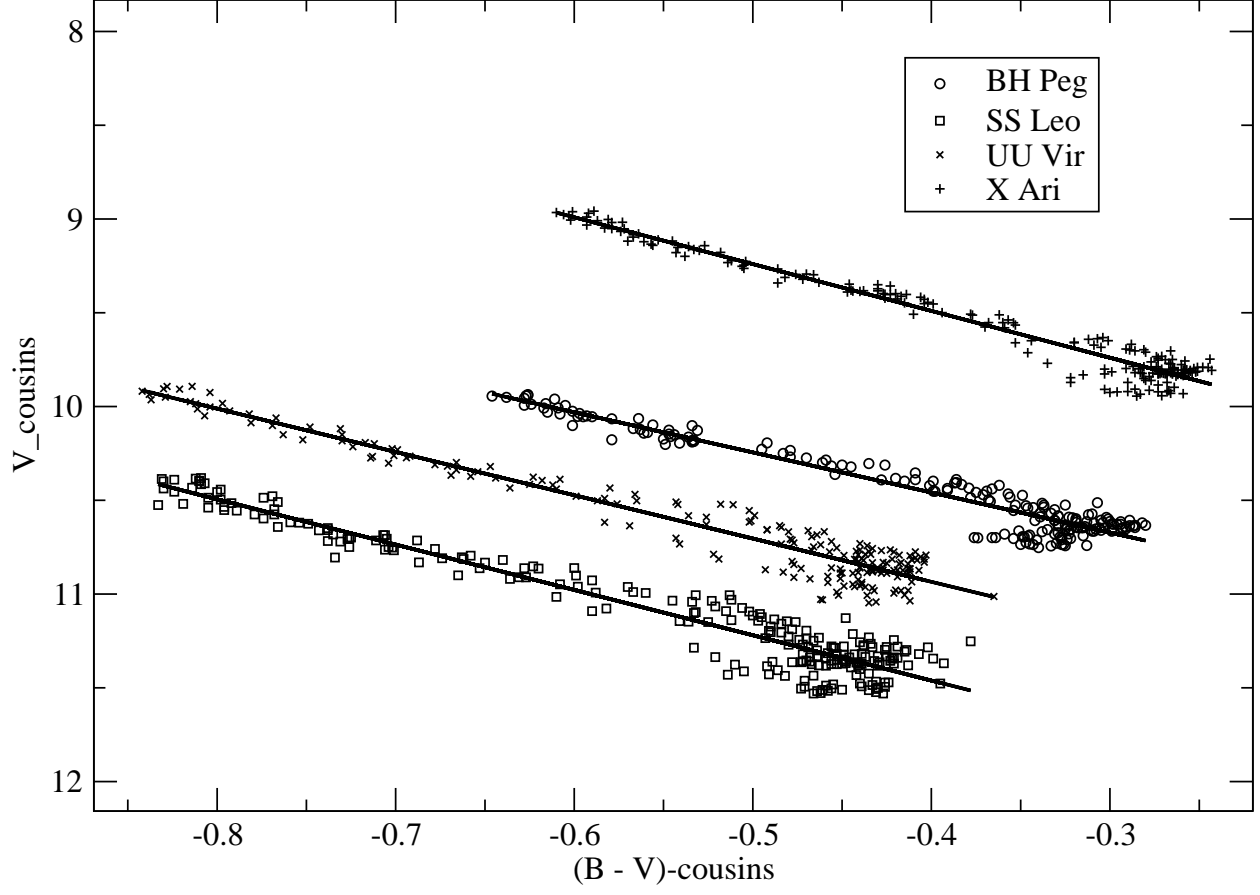


Fig. 12.— Cousins V magnitude as a function of $B - V$ color from Carrillo et al. (1995) for four well-studied RR Lyrae variables. Strong correlations are evident between apparent magnitude and color over the entire phase of each star.

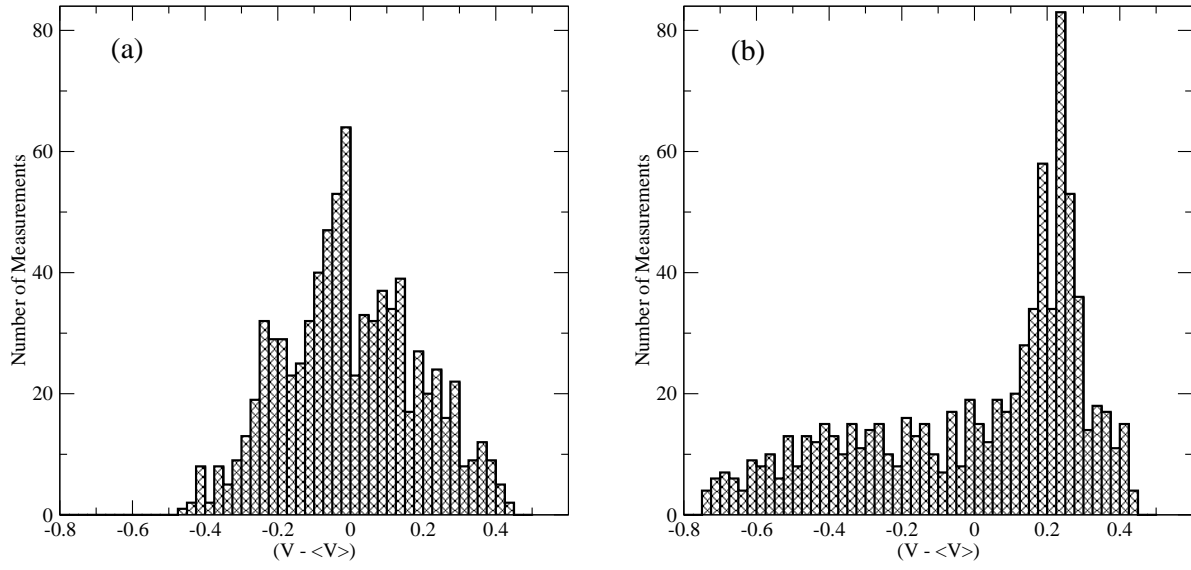


Fig. 13.— (a) Distribution of the difference between predicted V magnitude and average V magnitude for stars from Carrillo et al. (1995). (b) Difference between the measured V and $\langle V \rangle$. As is clear, distribution (b) shows much more scatter than the predicted V magnitudes.

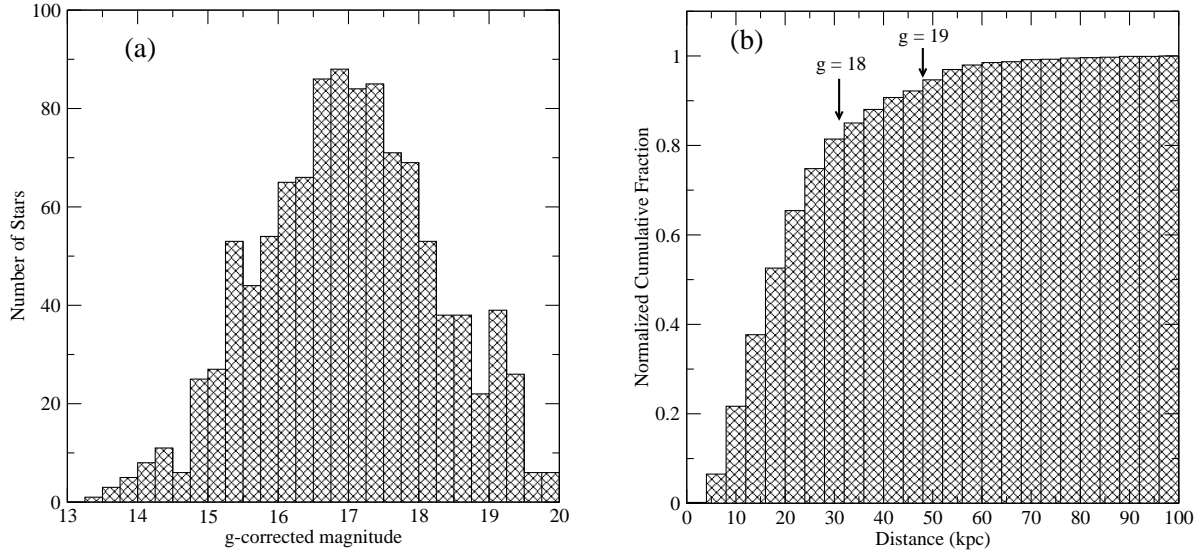


Fig. 14.— (a) Distribution of predicted $\langle g \rangle$ magnitudes for the SDSS DR-6 sample. There is a rapid decline in the number of stars beyond $\langle g \rangle = 18$, for reasons described in the text. (b) Normalized cumulative distribution of the estimated distances for this same sample. The positions of the predicted $\langle g \rangle = 18$ and $\langle g \rangle = 19$ are shown. We expect high efficiency rates for 94% of our sample, out to a distance of ~ 48 kpc.

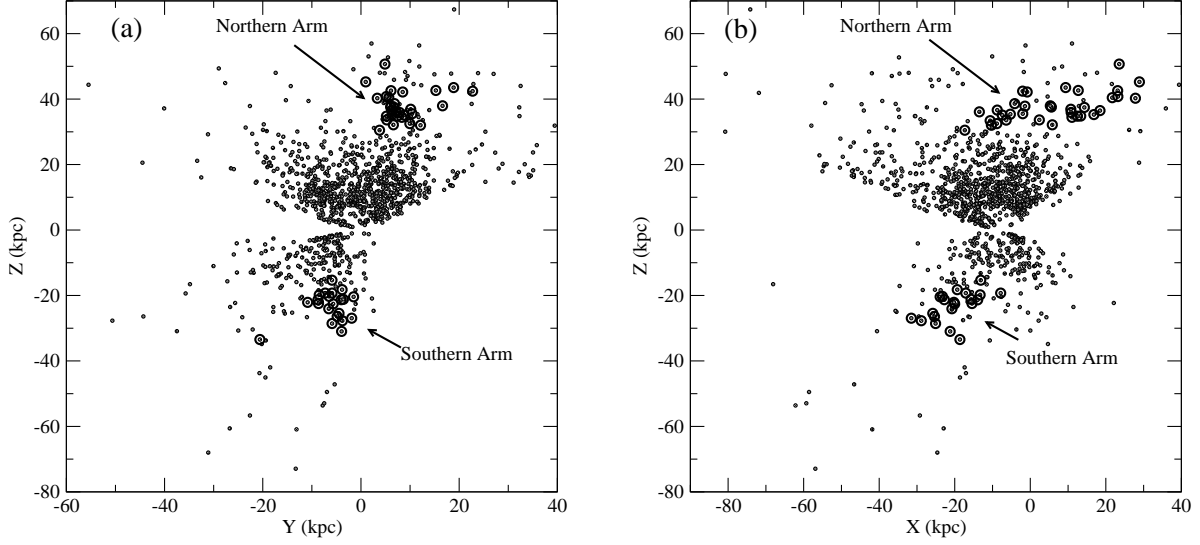


Fig. 15.— Plots of the Galactic Y-Z (a) and X-Z (b) projection for the DR-6 RR Lyrae sample. The outer halo appears to be decidedly non-homogeneous, although this is influenced by the choice of targets for spectroscopy. Stars expected to be members of the Sagittarius Stream are shown as large circles. The Northern Arm appears very “stream-like” in the X-Z projection.

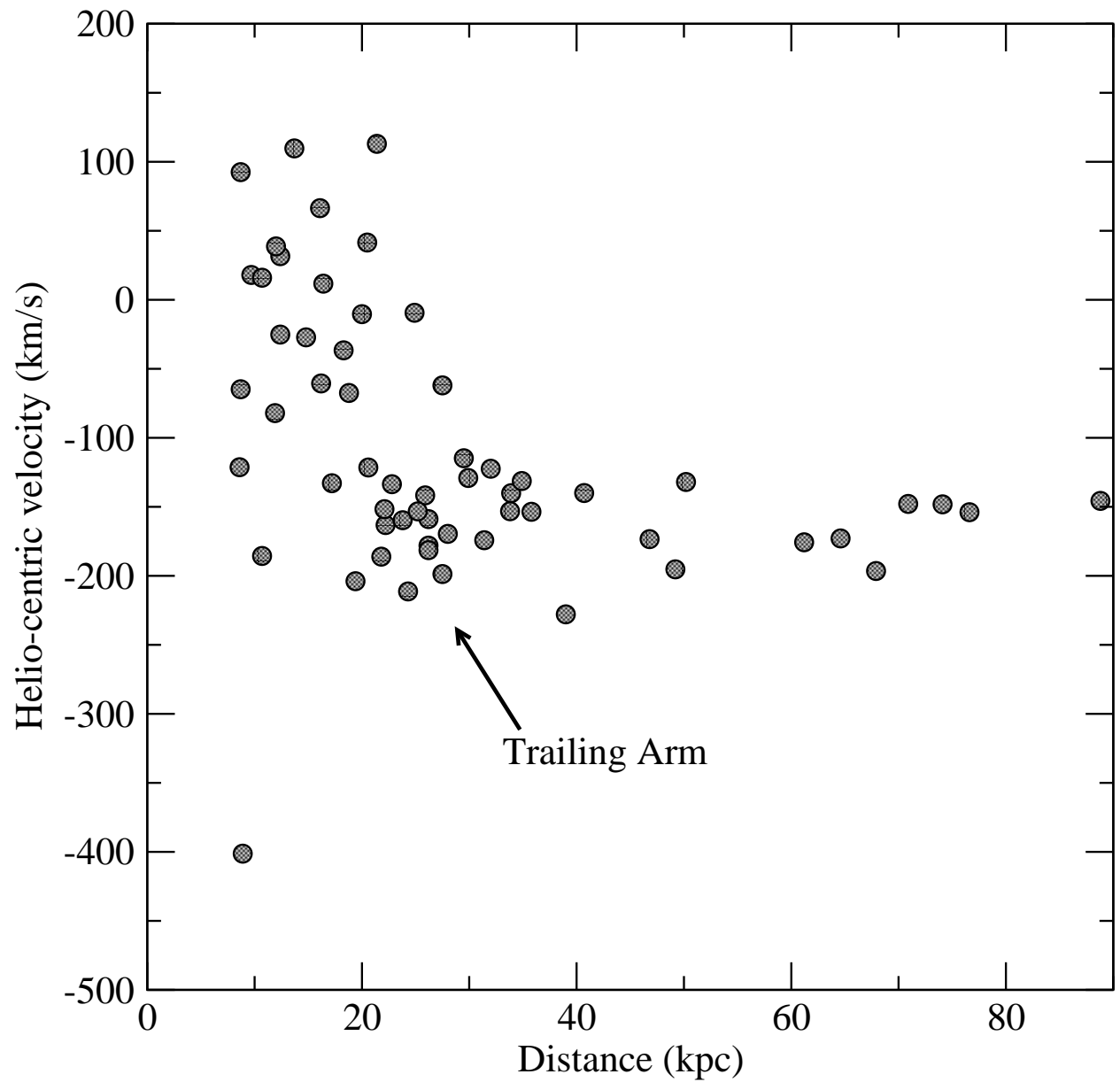


Fig. 16.— Heliocentric radial velocity as a function of distance for likely members of the trailing Southern Sagittarius Stream. The overdensity of stars in the plot is a positive detection of the stream.

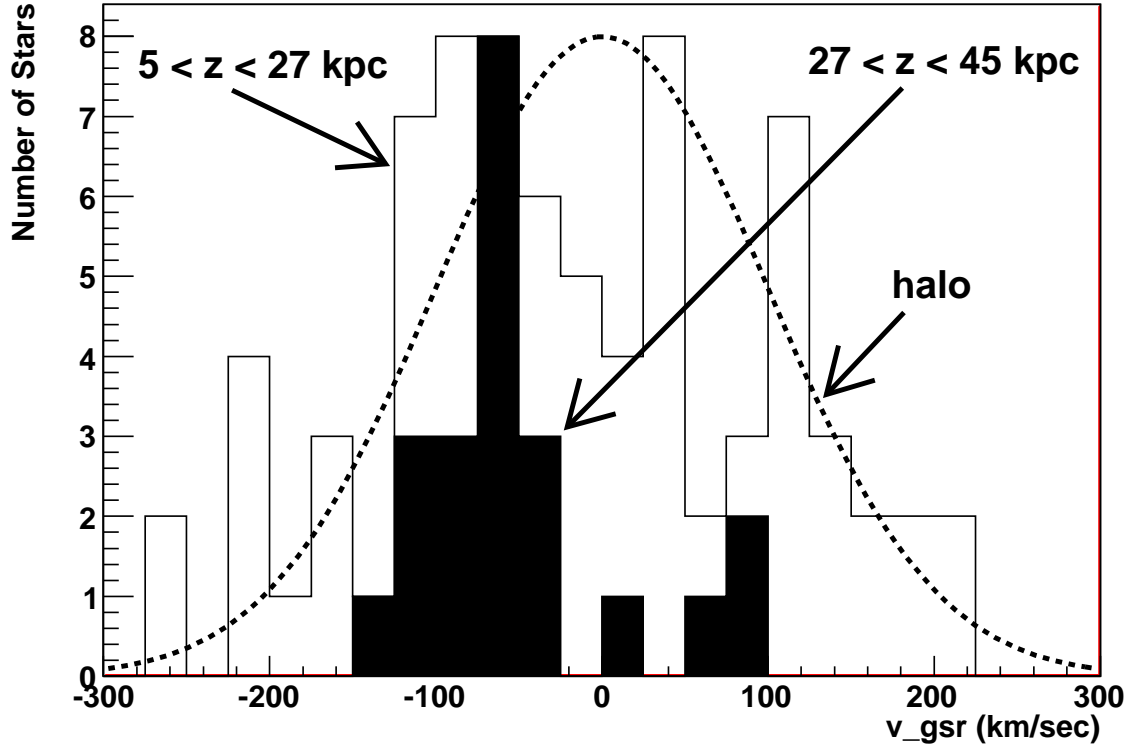


Fig. 17.— Histograms of the v_{gsr} near the NPC for samples split in distance above the Galactic plane, Z . The more distant sample is dominated by negative-velocity stars, while the more nearby sample appears to have structure that is inconsistent with sampling from the halo field population (shown as a superposed Gaussian with mean velocity $v_{gsr} = 0$ km s^{-1} , and dispersion 100 km s^{-1}).

Table 1. Model Boundaries for Variability

Coefficient	Upper Bound $D_{0.2}$	Lower Bound $D_{0.2}$	Upper Bound Eq. Width	Lower Bound Eq. Width
a0	24.242	15.995	16.316	11.256
a1	-83.185	-41.292	-49.251	-24.542
a2	8.5474	-85.6	-6.1093	-16.395
a3	602.91	436.57	383.51	-47.15
a4	-980.24	1578.5	-850.23	-254.08
a5	-2079.6	-556.16	-1290	5854.4
a6	5379.8	-38376	6758.8	-17999
a7	-2410.3	65538	-6108.3	16391

Table 2. Completeness for Stripe82 RR Lyrae Variables

Samples	S82 Sample	Recovered (5/10)	Percentage (5/10)	Recovered (10/15)	Percentage (10/15)
Total Sample	298	64	21.5	86	28.9
Inside Instability Limits	266	60	22.5	82	30.8
Total In-phase	152	–	–	–	–
In-phase Inside Instability Limits	144	–	–	–	–
Out-phase Inside Instability Limits	142	60	42.2	82	57.7
Out-phase Type RRab	128	53	41.4	73	57.0
Out-phase Type RRc	14	7	50.0	9	64.3

Table 3. Percentage of Correct Identifications

Samples	Total ID (5/10)	Correct ID (5/10)	Percentage(5/10)	Total ID (10/15)	Correct ID (10/5)	Percentage (10/15)
Total Variable Sample	225	64	28.4	355	86	24.2
Inside Instability Limits	111	60	54.1	168	82	48.8
$g < 19.0$	95	60	63.2	137	82	59.8
$g < 18.0$	66	48	72.7	100	69	69.0
Including color cut	71	60	84.5	107	82	76.6
$g < 19.0$	68	60	88.2	98	82	83.7
$g < 18.0$	53	48	90.6	82	69	84.1

Table 4. Percentage of Correct Identifications for Various Samples

Samples	Total ID (5/10)	Correct ID (5/10)	Percentage (5/10)	Total ID (10/15)	Correct ID (10/5)	Percentage (10/15)
Single Epoch Spec	45	34	75.5	71	47	66.2
$g < 19.0$	42	34	80.9	62	47	75.8
$g < 18.0$	35	30	85.7	54	42	77.7
Multiples Counted Once	65	54	83.1	92	68	73.9
$g < 19.0$	62	54	87.1	83	68	81.9
$g < 18.0$	50	45	90.0	70	59	84.3
A						

Table 5. McDonald Results – February 2007

Name	n	$\xi_{<V>}$	σ_V	χ^2_V	Variability
SDSS J100659.53+533318.9	8	0.025	0.019	0.055	No
SDSS J100719.58+532845.1	8	0.019	0.258	3.763	Yes
SDSS J095317.79+002451.3	8	0.032	0.167	0.700	Maybe
SDSS J095055.49+003253.9	8	0.080	0.130	0.020	No
SDSS J134427.48+002410.9	11	0.134	0.000	0.074	No
SDSS J134319.13-000622.0	11	0.020	0.093	0.566	Maybe

Table 6. McDonald Results – May 2007

Name	n_V	n_R	$\xi_{<V>}$	$\xi_{<R>}$	σ_V	σ_R	χ^2_V	χ^2_R	Variability
SDSS J132158.02+290807.0	9	9	0.023	0.047	0.179	0.146	1.61	1.072	Maybe
SDSS J130141.75+515158.3	10	9	0.029	0.024	0.087	0.109	0.313	0.508	No
SDSS J130537.39+595957.6	9	9	0.0180	0.014	0.453	0.369	19.978	16.618	Yes
SDSS J133003.97+605104.8	8	9	0.0120	0.010	0.194	0.197	3.652	4.385	Yes
SDSS J130707.52+580039.2	10	10	0.026	0.023	0.217	0.211	2.821	2.845	Yes

Table 7. McDonald Results – June 2007

Name	n_V	n_B	$\xi_{<V>}$	$\xi_{}$	σ_V	σ_B	χ^2_V	χ^2_B	Variability
SDSS J165340.87+342302.8	3	3	0.010	0.022	0.159	0.227	2.641	6.064	Yes
SDSS J170013.06+320148.7	5	5	0.019	0.021	0.298	0.474	5.204	13.19	Yes
SDSS J170545.77+201036.7	5	5	0.055	0.047	0.187	0.276	0.818	1.379	Maybe
SDSS J171850.00+264608.0	5	5	0.019	0.012	0.012	0.045	0.032	0.210	No
SDSS J171909.57+292027.8	4	4	0.021	0.026	0.516	0.664	20.85	35.840	Yes
SDSS J172300.39+274401.5	7	5	0.038	0.004	0.031	0.062	0.069	0.150	No
SDSS J223230.81-082856.3	5	5	0.031	0.075	0.153	0.000	0.875	0.078	No
SDSS J223331.14-084159.2	5	5	0.061	0.037	0.076	0.037	0.147	1.123	No

Table 8. The RR Lyrae Sample

Name	Spec	α	δ	l	b	CaHK EW	$\langle HEW \rangle$	$\langle HD_{0.2} \rangle$	g_{cor}	$(u-g)_o$	$(g-r)_o$	v_{helio}	N	Sample
SDSS J094322.02-001640.0	51602-0266-182	145.841766	-0.277789	236.2	37.2	2.34	12.81	19.44	16.862	1.113	0.145	249.9		5/10
SDSS J100924.16+004923.5	51909-0270-403	152.350662	0.823192	240.1	43.1	1.30	13.76	20.43	16.797	1.229	0.091	170.8	2	5/10
SDSS J103243.31+010231.2	51957-0273-523	158.180466	1.041989	245.2	47.7	2.29	10.97	16.60	15.279	1.176	-0.077	-73.4		
SDSS J104604.62+003617.7	51910-0275-493	161.519241	0.604916	249.1	49.9	2.00	8.65	12.97	14.392	1.248	0.016	215.3		
SDSS J112425.37-000919.7	51612-0280-101	171.105713	-0.155471	261.9	55.6	3.76	5.16	8.16	17.713	1.118	0.042	166.3		
SDSS J113335.65-011012.8	51630-0282-203	173.398529	-1.170210	266.3	56.1	4.06	11.22	17.10	16.553	1.263	-0.080	1.0	2	5/10
SDSS J113005.74+001107.8	51658-0282-343	172.523926	0.185493	263.6	56.7	3.10	5.43	7.79	17.653	1.080	0.183	138.4		5/10
SDSS J113821.89+004508.3	51630-0282-608	174.591217	0.752307	266.3	58.3	6.84	4.70	6.10	17.683	1.042	0.001	95.7	2	
SDSS J120910.44-004759.1	52023-0287-296	182.293488	-0.799740	281.2	60.3	3.33	5.28	8.51	17.266	1.298	-0.026	74.0		5/10
SDSS J121638.40-003711.8	52000-0288-279	184.160004	-0.619936	284.7	61.0	1.64	13.00	20.33	19.020	1.061	0.136	52.8		

Note. — Table 8 is published in its entirety in the electronic edition of the *Astronomical Journal*. A portion is shown here for guidance regarding its form and content.